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ABSTRACT

This bulletin features four papers, a summary of the World Conference on Education for All held in Jomtien, Thailand in March of 1990, the World Declaration on Education for All, and a framework for action to meet basic learning needs. The four presentations include: "Educational Planning in the Future" (Jesus M. Gurriaran); "An Analysis of Educational Financing and Administration in a Context of Austerity. The Case of Uruguay" (Aldo E. Solari); "Strategies Utilised to Introduce a Caribbean Examinations Council" (Barbara Bailey); and "The School Councils and Educational Development. An Argentinian Experience" (Antonio P. F. Salviolo). The document concludes with an outline of UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (OREALC) activities and a list of OREALC publications. (DE)

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bulletin

THE MAJOR PROJECT IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

In The Latin American and Caribbean Region

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The Major Project
in the Field of Education in Latin America and the Caribbean
has resulted from a consensus
on the part of government representatives
of the countries of the region
concerning the necessity
for a renewed, intensive and sustained effort
to make good deficiencies and to meet
unsatisfied basic educational needs
between now and the year 2000
as a prerequisite for the development
of the those countries
in line with objectives shared by all
and by means of actions in which
each country's own effort
may be benefited
by horizontal, subregional, regional
and international co-operation.

THE MAJOR PROJECT IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION
In Latin America and the Caribbean

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BULLETIN 21

Santiago, Chile, April 1990

In order that this bulletin
may reflect in as complete and timely manner as possible
the initiatives and activities carried out
by each and all the countries of the region
in relation to the Major Project in the Field of
Education in the Latin America and Caribbean Region,
pertinent official bodies are invited
to send to
the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in
Latin America and the Caribbean
all information they wish
to have published in this bulletin.

The publication of this bulletin has been made possible by the voluntary contribution of the Spanish Government to the activities of the Major Project in the Field of Education in Latin America and the Caribbean.

The views expressed in the signed articles are those of their authors, and are not necessarily shared by UNESCO.
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PRESENTATION

To make come true the enormous potential existent –for the human progress and possibilities, depends on the fact of people being able to acquire education and give the necessary impulse for the utilization of the whole –in permanent expansion–, of adequate knowledge and of the means to share it. This ambition turned into a historical command because of the needs of millions of people in the world –summarizes the strong purpose arising from the recent World Conference on Education for All held from 5 through 9 March at Jomtien, a site near to Bangkok, Thailand.

At the doorstep of a new century, with an authentic process of pacific distension in progress, together with a greater cooperation among nations, which assures the extension of important benefits available for the survival and basic wellfare of the world population, the conviction exists that the combination of these factors added up to the accummulated experience of reforms, innovations and researches, turns the basic education for all into an objective which can be attained for the first time in history. In this way, the more than 1500 participants to the Conference, called together by UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank and the UNDP, approved two documents which are to play a transcendent role in education in the near future. They are the "World Declaration on Education for All" and the "Framework for action to meet basic learning needs", both of them included in this Bulletin's issue.

Few days after the World Conference was over, it took place in Mexico, the International Congress on Planning and Management of the Education Development. At this opportunity, 360 experts coming from 101 countries, were in agreement of the fact that the economical, educational and the own social planning crisis, made it evident that the rational utilization of the limited resources, is now more necessary than ever before to face the lacks affecting the community in this field. Jesús M. Gurriarán presents an interesting paper on what was analyzed during that Congress, which summarizes and projects the role that the planning must play in the future of education.

As a homage to the memory of Aldo E. Solari –one of the most influential social scientists in Latin America, who died in January 1989 –we present one of the latest papers that UNESCO took charge of, an analysis of educational financing and administration in a context of austerity like the one affecting his own country: Uruguay.

We also include in this Bulletin's issue, the contribution of Barbara Bailey which describes the efforts made by English-speaking Caribbean teachers to establish the Councils of examinations that will replace those traditionally carried out by different high level centers of studies in Great Britain.

Finally, we briefly summarize the participation of Antonio P.F. Salviolo –Minister Director General of Schools and Culture of the Province of Buenos Aires, Argentina, during a seminar carried out at the OREALC Headquarters, regarding the experience of the School Councils and the educational development. An experience whose positive results have made it attractive as an instrument to make educational actors effectively participate in the innovating solution of the problems faced by the sector.

WORLD CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION FOR ALL

Governmental and non-governmental delegations, cooperation organizations and personalities from all over the world pledged to meet the basic learning needs of all the inhabitants of the planet. Theirs was a political and technical commitment rooted in the principles of freedom, equality and solidarity.

As the Director-General of UNESCO, Federico Mayor, expressed it: "The World Conference is indeed not, nor could it be, a starting point, nor can it be considered an end in itself. it is doubtlessly a step of the highest importance for all those involved in education, and who have joined all their efforts and competence to prepare the future of our young people. We must continue progressing with renewed vigor and a clear understanding of the purport of our objective: education for all in year 2000".

This political commitment is one based on consensus as to how important and imperative education is for the individual and collective future of our nations, on consensus that the quality of life of individuals and the economic, political, social and cultural development processes depend, to a great extent, on the role they can play in the forging of their destinies and, finally, on consensus as to the political will to confront adverse circumstances by concerting action at the national and international level.

It is a technical challenge in that the basic learning needs are the main reference to elaborate adequate strategies to satisfy them. Assessing and determining the needs in the midst of new circumstances implies a recognition that progress is not possible with the educational opportunities we have known so far. The Conference in that respect was a call for creativity, for renewal of concepts and strategies in education. Bringing in new actors to face this challenge is not only the expression of the political commitment, but also at the same time a challenge for pedagogical renewal. It is a challenge to match coverage with efficiency, equity and educational quality.

Within this framework of political and technical commitment are the problems of financing of education. The gravity of external debt, and the urgent need to solve this problem, reorienting resources towards education, increasing international cooperation for education are all key aspects if the objectives agreed upon by the World Conference are to be reached.

The World Conference convened by UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank and UNDP also breathes new life into the Major Project in the Field of Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, a project which is an important precedent for this crucial event and a fundamental course to reach its objectives in the region.

The Conference took place in Jomtien near Bangkok, Thailand, from 5 to 9 March 1990, and the approximately 1500 participants unanimously approved two complementary documents: the "World Declaration on Education for All" and the "Reference Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs".

Together with discussion and approval of these documents, 32 round tables were organized on different themes and on national action plans, as well as 60 exhibitions on experiences related with the objectives of the Conference.

Prior to their approval by the Conference, the texts of the two documents had been studied by successive discussion organs and had been the subject of ten regional meetings, in which the majority of countries in the world had the opportunity to express their points of view.

The documents are published in this bulletin of the Major Project in the Field of Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, in view of the importance of the commitments made therein and the role which they are called upon to play in the immediate future. More information on the Conference may be obtained in the documents prepared by the Inter-Agency Commission, which prepared the Conference.

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* From the speech made during the closing session by the Director-General of UNESCO, Mr. Federico Mayor, in the name of the Conference's Sponsoring Agencies.

World Declaration on Education for All

Meeting Basic Learning Needs

PREAMBLE

More than 40 years ago, the nations of the world, speaking through the Universal Declaration of Human Rights asserted that "everyone has a right to education". Despite notable efforts by countries around the globe to ensure the right to education for all, the following realities persist:

- More than 100 million children, including at least 60 million girls, have no access to primary schooling;
- More than 960 million adults, two-thirds of whom are women, are illiterate, and fufnctional illiteracy is a significant problem in all countries, industrialized and developing;
- More than one-third of the world's adults have no access to the printed knowledge, new skills and technologies that could improve the quality of their lives and help them shape, and adapt to, social and cultural change; and
- More than 100 million children and countless adults fail to complete basic education programmes, millions more satisfy the attendance requirements but do not acquire essential knowledge and skills.

At the same time, the world faces daunting problems particularly mounting debt burdens, the threat of economic stagnation and decline, rapid population growth, widening economic disparities among and within nations, war, occupation, civil strife, violent crime, the preventable deaths of millions of children and widespread environmental degradation. These problems constrain efforts to meet basic learning needs, while the lack of basic education among a significant proportion of the population provents societies from addressing such problems with strength and purpose.

These problems have led to major setbacks in basic education in the 1980s in many of the least developed countries. In some other countries, economic growth has been available to finance education expansion, but even so, many millions remain in poverty and unschooled or illiterate. In certain industrialized countries too, cutbacks in government expenditure over the 1980s have led to the deterioration of education.

Yet the world is also at the threshold of a new century, with all its promise and possibilities. Today, there is genuine progress toward peaceful detente and greater cooperation among nations. Today, the essential rights and capacities of women are being realized. Today, there are many useful scientific and cultural developments. Today, the sheer quantity of information available in the world –much of it relevant to survival and basic well-being– is exponentially greater than that available only a few years ago, and the rate of its growth is accelerating. This includes information about obtaining more life-enhancing knowledge –or learning how to learn. A synergistic effect occurs when important information is coupled with another modern advance– our new capacity to communicate.

These new forces, when combined with the cumulative experience of reform, innovation, research and

the remarkable educational progress of many countries, make the goal of basic education for all –for the first time in history– an attainable goal.

Therefore, we participants in the World Conference on Education for All, assembled in Jomtien, Thailand, from 5 to 9 March, 1990:

Recalling that education is a fundamental right for all people, women and men, of all ages, throughout our world;

Understanding that education can help ensure a safer, healthier, more prosperous and environmentally sound world, while simultaneously contributing to social, economic, and cultural progress, tolerance, and international cooperation;

Knowing that education is an indispensable key to, though not a sufficient condition for, personal and social improvement;

Recognizing that traditional knowledge and indigenous cultural heritage have a value and validity in their own right and a capacity to both define and promote development;

Acknowledging that, overall, the current provision of education is seriously deficient and that it must be made more relevant and qualitatively improved, and made universally available;

Recognizing that sound basic education is fundamental to the strengthening of higher levels of education and of scientific and technological literacy and capacity and thus to self-reliant development; and

Recognizing the necessity to give to present and coming generations an expanded vision of, and a renewed commitment to, basic education to address the scale and complexity of the challenge.

proclaim the following
World Declaration on Education for All: Meeting Basic Learning Needs

EDUCATION FOR ALL: THE PURPOSE

ARTICLE I. MEETING BASIC LEARNING NEEDS

1. Every person –child, youth and adult– shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs. These needs comprise both essential learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning. The scope of basic learning needs and how they should be met varies with individual countries and cultures, and inevitably, changes with the passage of time.

2. The satisfaction of these needs empowers individuals in any society and confers upon them a responsibility to respect and build upon their collective cultural, linguistic and spiritual heritage, to promote the education of others, to further the cause of social justice, to achieve environmental protection, to be tolerant towards social, political and religious systems which differ from their own, ensuring that commonly accepted humanistic values and human rights are upheld, and to work for international peace and solidarity in an interdependent world.

3. Another and no less fundamental aim of educational development is the transmission and enrichment of common cultural and moral values. It is in these values that the individual and society find their identity and worth.

4. Basic education is more than an end in itself. It is the foundation for lifelong learning and human development on which countries may build, systematically, further levels and types of education and training.

EDUCATION FOR ALL: AN EXPANDED VISION AND A RENEWED COMMITMENT

ARTICLE II - SHAPING THE VISION

To serve the basic learning needs of all requires more than a recommitment to basic education as it now exists. What is needed is an "expanded vision" that surpasses present resource levels, institutional structures, curricula, and conventional delivery systems while building on the best in current practices. New possibilities exist today which result from the convergence of the increase in information and the unprecedented capacity to communicate. We must seize them with creativity and a determination for increased effectiveness.

As elaborated in Articles III-VII, the expanded vision encompasses:

- Universalizing access and promoting equity;
- Focussing on learning;
- Broadening the means and scope of basic education;
- Enhancing the environment for learning;
- Strengthening partnerships.

The realization of an enormous potential for human progress and empowerment is contingent upon whether people can be enabled to acquire the education and the start needed to tap into the ever-expanding pool of relevant knowledge and the new means for sharing this knowledge.

ARTICLE III - UNIVERSALIZING ACCESS AND PROMOTING EQUITY

1. Basic education should be provided to all children, youth and adults. To this end, basic education services of quality should be expanded and consistent measures must be taken to reduce disparities.

2. For basic education to be equitable, all children, youth and adults must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning.

3. The most urgent priority is to ensure assess to, and improve the quality of, education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacle that hampers their active participation. All gender stereotyping in education should be eliminated.

4. An active commitment must be made to removing educational disparities. Underserved groups: the

poor; street and working children; rural and remote populations; nomads and migrant workers; indigenous peoples; ethnic, racial, and linguistic minorities; refugees; those displaced by war; and people under occupation, should not suffer any discrimination in access to learning opportunities.

5. The learning needs of the disabled demand special attention. Steps need to be taken to provide equal access to education to every category of disabled persons as an integral part of the education system.

ARTICLE IV - FOCUSSING ON LEARNING

Whether or not expanded educational opportunities will translate into meaningful development –for an individual or for society– depends ultimately on whether people actually learn as a result of those opportunities, i.e., whether they incorporate useful knowledge, reasoning ability, skills, and values. The focus of basic education must, therefore, be on actual learning acquisition and outcome, rather than exclusively upon enrolment, continued participation in organized programmes and completion of are particularly valuable in assuring learning acquisition and allowing learners to reach their fullest potential. It is, therefore, necessary to define acceptable levels of learning acquisition for educational programmes and to improve and apply systems of assessing learning achievement.

ARTICLE V - BROADENING THE MEANS AND SCOPE OF BASIC EDUCATION

The diversity, complexity, and changing nature of basic learning needs of children, youth and adults necessitates broadening and constantly redefining the scope of basic education to include the following components:

- Learning begins at birth. This calls for early childhood care and initial education. These can be provided through arrangements involving families, communities, or institutional programmes, as appropriate.

- The main delivery system for the basic education of children outside the family is primary schooling. Primary education must be universal, ensure that the basic learning needs of all children are satisfied and take into account the culture, needs, and opportunities of the community. Supplementary alternative programmes can help meet the basic learning needs of children with limited or no access to formal schooling, provided that they share the same standards of learning applied to schools, and are adequately supported.

- The basic learning needs of youth and adults are diverse and should be met through a variety of delivery systems. Literacy programmes are indispensable because literacy is a necessary skill in itself and the foundation of other life skills. Literacy in the mother-tongue strengthens cultural identity and heritage. Other needs can be served by: skills training, apprenticeships, and formal and non-formal education programmes in health, nutrition, population, agricultural techniques, the environment, science, technology, family life, including fertility awareness, and other societal issues.

- All available instruments and channels of information, communications, and social action could be used to help convey essential knowledge and inform and educate people on social issues. In addition to the traditional means, libraries, television, radio and other media can be mobilized to realize their potential towards meeting basic education neds of all.

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These components should constitute an integrated system complementary, mutually reinforcing, and of comparable standards, and they should contribute to creating and developing possibilities for lifelong learning.

ARTICLE VI - ENHANCING THE ENVIRONMENT FOR LEARNING

Learning does not take place in isolation. Societies; therefore must ensure that all learners receive the nutrition, health care, and general physical and emotional support they need in order to participate actively in and benefit from their education. Knowledge and skills that will enhance the learning environment of children should be integrated into community learning programmes for adults. The education of children and their parents or other caretakers is mutually supportive and this interaction should be used to create, for all, a learning environment of vibrancy and warmth.

ARTICICLE VII - STRENGTHENING PARTNERSHIPS

National, regional, and local educational authorities have a unique obligation to provide basic education for all, but they cannot be expected to supply every human, financial or organizational requirement for this task. New and revitalized partnerships at all levels will be necessary: partnerships among all sub-sectors and forms of education, recognizing the special role of teachers and that of administrators and other educational personnel; partnerships between education and other government departments, including planning, finance, labour, communications, and other social sectors; partnerships between government and non governmental organizations, the private sector, local communities, religious groups, and families.

The recognition of the vital role of both families and teachers is particularly important. In this context, the terms and conditions of service of teachers and their status, which constitute a determining factor in the implementation of education for all, must be urgently improved in all countries in line with the joint ILO/UNESCO Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers (1966). Genuine partnerships contribute to the planning, implementing, managing and evaluating of basic education programmes. When we speak of "an expanded vision and a renewed commitment", partnerships are at the heart of it.

EDUCATION FOR ALL: THE REQUIREMENTS

ARTICLE VIII - DEVELOPING A SUPPORTIVE POLICY CONTEXT

1. Supportive policies in the social, cultural, and economic sectors are required in order to realize the full provision and utilization of basic education for individual and societal improvement. The provision of basic education for all depends on political commitment and political will backed by appropriate fiscal measures and reinforced by educational policy reforms and institutional strengthening. Suitable economic, trade, labour, employment and health policies will enhace learners' incentives and contributions to societal development.

2. Societies should also insure a strong intellectual and scientific environment for basic education. This implies improving higher education and developing scientific research. Close contact with contemporary technological and scientific knowledge should be possible at every level of education.

ARTICLE IX - MOBILIZING RESOURCES

1. If the basic learning needs of all are to be met through a much broader scope of action than in the past, it will be essential to mobilize existing and new financial and human resources, public, private and voluntary. All of society has a contribution to make, recognizing that time, energy and funding directed to basic education are perhaps the most profund investment in people and in the future of a country which can be made.

2. Enlarged public-sector support means drawing on the resources of all the government agencies responsible for human development, through increased absolute and proportional allocations to basic education services with the clear recognition of competing claims on national resources of which education is an important one, but not the only one. Serious attention to improving the efficiency of existing educational resources and programmes will not only produce more, it can also be expected to attract new resources. The urgent task of meeting basic learning needs may require a reallocation between sectors, as, for example, a transfer from military to educational expenditure. Above all, special protection for basic education will be required in countries undergoing structural adjustment and facing severe external debt burdens. Today, more than ever, education must be seen as a fundamental dimension of any social, cultural, and economic design.

ARTICLE X - STRENGTHENING INTERNATIONAL SOLIDARITY

1. Meeting basic learning needs constitutes a common and universal human responsibility. It requires international solidarity and equitable and fair economic relations in order to redress existing economic disparities. All nations have valuable knowledge and experiences to share for designing effective educational policies and programmes.

2. Substantial and long-term increases in resources for basic education will be needed. The world community, including intergovernmental agencies and institutions, has an urgent responsibility to alleviate the constraints that prevent some countries from achieving the goal of education for all. It will mean the adoption of measures that augment the national budgets of the poorest countries or serve to relieve heavy debt burdens. Creditors and debtors must seek innovative and equitable formulae to resolve these burdens, since the capacity of many developing countries to respond effectively to education and other basic needs will be greatly helped by finding solutions to the debt problem.

3. Basic learning needs of adults and children must be addressed wherever they exist. Least developed and low-income countries have special needs which require priority in international support for basic education in the 1990s.

4 All nations must also work together to resolve conflicts and strife, to end military occupations, and to settle displaced populations, or to facilitate their return to their countries of origin, and ensure that their basic learning needs are met. Only a stable and peaceful environment can create the conditions in which every human being, child and adult alike, may benefit from the goals of this Declaration.

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We, the participants in the World Conference on Education for All, reaffirm the right of all people to education. This is the foundation of our determination, singly and together, to ensure education for all.

We commit ourselves to act cooperatively through our own spheres of responsibility, taking all necessary steps to achieve the goals of education for all. Together we call on governments, concerned organizations and individuals to join in this urgent undertaking.

The basic learning needs of all can and must be met. There can be no more meaningful way to begin the International Literacy Year, to move forward the goals of the United Nations Decade of Disabled Persons (1983-92), the World Decade for Cultural Development (1988-97), the Fourth United Nations Development Decade (1991-2000), of the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and the Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, and of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. There has never been a more propitious time to commit ourselves to providing basic learning opportunities for all the people of the world.

We adopt, therefore, this **World Declaration on Education for All: Meeting Basic Learning Needs and agree on the Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs,** to achieve the goals set forth in this Declaration.

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Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs

Guidelines for Implementing the World Declaration on Education for All

INTRODUCTION

1. This *Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs* derives from the *World Declaration on Education for All*, adopted by the World Conference on Education for All, which brought together representatives of governments, international and bilateral development agencies, and non-governmental organizations. Based on the best collective knowledge and the commitment of these partners, the *Framework* is intended as a reference and guide for national governments, international organizations, bilateral aid agencies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and all those committed to the goal of Education for All in formulating their own plans of action for implementing the World Declaration. It describes three broad levels of concerted action: (i) direct action within individual countries, (ii) co-operation among groups of countries sharing certain characteristics and concerns, and (iii) multilateral and bilateral co-operation in the world community.

2. Individual countries and groups of countries, as well as international, regional and national organizatons, may use the *Framework* to develop their own specific plans of action and programmes in line with their particular objectives, mandates and constituencies. This indeed has been the case in the ten-year experience of the UNESCO Major Project on Education for Latin America and the Caribbean. Further examples of such related initiatives are the UNESCO Plan of Action for the Eradication of Illiteracy by the Year 2000 adopted by the UNESCO General Conference at its 25th session (1989); the ISESCO Special Programme (1990); the current review by the World Bank of its policy for primary education; and USAID's programme for Advancing Basic Education and Literacy. Insofar as such plans of action, policies and programmes are consistent with this Framework, efforts throughout the world to meet basic learning needs will converge and facilitate co-operation.

3. While countries have many common concerns in meeting the basic learning needs of their populations, these concerns do, of course, vary in nature and intensity from country to country depending on the actual status of basic education as well as the cultural and socio-economic context. Globally by the year 2000, if enrolment rates remain at current levels, there will be more than 160 million children without access to primary schooling simply because of population growth. In much of sub-Saharan Africa and in many low income countries elsewhere, the provision of universal primary education for rapidly growing numbers of children remains a long-term challenge. Despite progress in promoting adult literacy, most of these same countries still have high illiteracy rates, while the numbers of functionally illiterate adults continue to grow and constitute a major social problem in much of Asia and the Arab States, as well as in Europe and North America. Many people are denied equal access on grounds of race, gender, language, disability, ethnic origin, or political convictions. In addition, high drop-out rates and poor learning achievement are commonly recognized problems throughout the world. These very general characterizations illustrate the need for decisive action on a large scale, with clear goals and targets.

GOALS AND TARGETS

4. The ultimate goal affirmed by the *World Declaration on Education for All* is to meet the basic learning needs of all children, youth, and adults. The long-term effort to attain that goal can be maintained more effectively if intermediate goals are established and progress toward these goals is measured. Appropriate authorities at the national and subnational levels may establish such intermediate goals, taking into account the objectives of the Declaration as well as overall national development goals and priorities.

5. Intermediate goals can usefully be formulated as specific targets within national and subnational plans for educational development. Such targets usually (i) specify expected attainments and outcomes in reference to terminal performance specifications within and appropriate timeframe, (ii) specify priority categories (e. g. the poor, the disabled), and (iii) are formulated in terms such that progress toward them can be observed and measured. These targets represent a "floor" but not a "ceiling" for the continued development of education programmes and services.

6. Time-bound targets convey a sense of urgency and serve as a reference against which indices of implementation and accomplishment can be compared. As societal conditions change, plans and targets can be reviewed and updated. Where basic education efforts must be focussed to meet the needs of specific social groups or population categories, linking targets to such priority categories of learners can help to maintain the attention of planners, practitioners and evaluators on meeting the needs of these learners. Observable and measurable targets assist in the objective evaluation of progress.

7. Targets need not be based solely on current trends and resources. Initial targets can reflect a realistic appraisal of the possibilities presented by the Declaration to mobilize additional human, organizational, and financial capacities within a cooperative commitment to human development. Countries with low literacy and school enrolment rates, and very limited national resources, will need to make hard choices in establishing national targets within a realistic timeframe.

8. Countries may wish to set their own targets for the 1990s in terms of the following proposed dimensions:

(1) Expansion of early childhood care and developmental activities, including family and community interventions, especially for poor, disadvantaged and disabled children;
(2) Universal access to, and completion of, primary education (or whatever higher level of education is considered as "basic") by the year 2000;
(3) Improvement in learning achievement such that an agreed percentage of an appropriate age cohort (e.g. 80% of 14 year-olds) attains or surpasses a defined level of necessary learning achievement;
(4) Reduction of the adult illiteracy rate (the appropriate age group to be determined in each country) to, say, one-half its 1990 level by the year 2000, with sufficient emphasis on female literacy to significantly reduce the current disparity between male and female illiteracy rates;
(5) Expansion of provisions of basic education and training in other essential skills required by youth and adults, with programme effectiveness assessed in terms of behavioural changes and impacts on health, employment and productivity;
(6) Increased acquisition by individuals and families of the knowledge, skills and values required for better living and sound and sustainable development, made available through all education channels including the mass media, other forms of modern and traditional communication, and social action, with effectiveness assessed in terms of behavioural change.

9. Levels of performance in the above should be established, when possible. These should be consistent with the focus of basic education both on universalization of access and on learning acquisition, as joint and inseparable concerns. In all cases, the performance targets should include equity by gender. However, setting levels of performance and of the proportions of participants who are expected to reach these levels in specific basic education programmes must be an autonomous task of individual countries.

PRINCIPLES OF ACTION

10. The first step consists in identifying, preferably through an active participatory process involving groups and the community, the traditional learning systems which exist in the society, and the actual demand for basic education services, whether expressed in terms of formal schooling or non-formal education programmes. Addressing the basic learning needs of all means: early childhood care and development opportunities; relevant, quality primary schooling or equivalent out-of-school education for children; and literacy, basic knowledge and life skills training for youth and adults. It also means capitalizing on the use of traditional and modern information media and technologies to educate the public on matters of social concern and to support basic education activities. These complementary components of basic education need to be designed to ensure equitable access, sustained participation, and effective learning achievement. Meeting basic learning needs also involves action to enhance the family and community environments for learning and to correlate basic education and the larger socio-economic context. The complementarity and synergistic effects of related human resources investments in population, health and nutrition should be recognized.

11. Because basic learning needs are complex and diverse, meeting them requires multisectoral strategies and action which are integral to overall development efforts. Many partners must join with the education authorities, teachers, and other educational personnel in developing basic education if it is to ben seen, once again, as the responsibility of the entire society. This implies the active involvement of a wide range of partners –families, teachers, communities, private en-

terprises (including those involved in information and communication), government and non-governmental organizations, institutions, etc.– in planning, managing and evaluating the many forms of basic education.

12. Current practices and institutional arrangements for delivering basic education, and the existing mechanisms for co-operation in this regard, should be carefully evaluated before new institutions or mechanisms are created. Rehabilitating dilapidated schools and improving the training and working conditions of teachers and literacy workers, building on existing learning schemes, are likely to bring greater and more immediate returns on investment than attempts to start afresh.

13. Great potential lies in possible joint actions with non-governmental organizations on all levels. These autonomous bodies, while advocating independent and critical public views, might play roles in monitoring, research, training and material production for the sake of non-formal and life-long educational processes.

14. The primary purpose of bilateral and multilateral co-operation should appear in a true spirit of partnership –it should not be to transplant familiar models, but to help develop the endogenous capacities of national authorities and their in-country partners to meet basic learning needs effectively. Action and resources should be used to strengthen essential features of basic education services, focussing on managerial and analytical capacities, which can stimulate further developments. International co-operation and funding can be particularly valuable in supporting major reforms or sectoral adjustments, and in helping to develop and test innovative approaches to teaching and management, where new approaches need to be tried and/or extraordinary levels of expenditure are involved and where knowledge of relevant experiences elsewhere can often be useful.

15. International co-operation should give priority to the countries currently least able to meet the basic learning needs of their populations. It should also help countries redress their internal disparities in educational opportunity. Because two-thirds of illiterate adults and out-of-school children are female, wherever such inequities exist, a most urgent priority is to improve access to education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacle that hampers their active participation.

I. PRIORITY ACTION AT NATIONAL LEVEL

16. Progress in meeting the basic learning needs of all will depend ultimately on the actions taken within individual countries. While regional and international co-operation and financial assistance can support and facilitate such actions, government authorities, communities and their several in-country partners are the key agents for improvement, and national governments have the main responsibility for coordinating the effective use of internal and external resources. Given the diversity of countries' situations, capacities and development plans and goals, this *Framework* can only suggest certain areas that merit priority attention. Each country will determine for itself what specific actions beyond current efforts may be necessary in each of the following areas.

I. 1. Assessing needs and planning action

17. To achieve the targets set for itself, each country is encouraged to develop or update comprehensive and long-term plans of action (from local to national levels) to meet the learning needs it has defined as "basic". Within the context of existing education-sector and general development plans and strategies, a plan of action for basic education for all will necessarily be multisectoral, to guide activities in the sectors involved (e.g. education, information, communications/media, labour, agriculture, health). Models of strategic planning, by definition, vary. However, most of them involve constant adjustments among objectives, resources, actions, and constraints. At the national level, objectives are normally couched in broad terms and central government resources are also determined, while actions are taken at the local level. Thus, local plans in the same national setting will naturally differ not only in scope but in content. National and subnational frameworks and local plans should allow for varying conditions and circumstances. These might , therefore, specify:

- studies for the evaluation of existing systems (analysis of problems, failures and successes):
- the basic learning needs to be met, including cognitive skills, values, attitudes, as well as subject knowledge;
- the languages to be used in education

- means to promote the demand for, and broadscale participation in, basic education;
- modalities to mobilize family and local community support;
- targets and specific objectives;
- the required capital and recurrent resources, duly costed, as well as possible measures for cost effectiveness;
- indicators and procedures to be used to monitor progress in reaching the targets;
- priorities for using resources and for developing services and programmes over time;
- the priority groups that require special measures;
- the kinds of expertise required to implement the plan;
- institutional and administrative arrangements needed;
- modalities for ensuring information sharing among formal and other basic education programmes and;
- an implementation strategy and timetable.

I. 2. Developing a supportive policy environment

18. A multisectoral plan of action implies adjustments to sectoral policies so that sectors interact in a mutually supportive and beneficial manner in line with the country's overall development goals. Action to meet basic learning needs should be an integral part of a country's national and subnational development strategies, which should reflect the priority given to human development. Legislative and other measures may be needed to promote and facilitate co-operation among the various partners involved. Advocacy and public information about basic education are important in creating a supportive policy environment at national, subnational and local levels.

19. Four specific steps that merit attention are: (i) initiation of national and subnational level activities to create a broad, public recommitment to the goal of education for all; (ii) reduction of inefficiency in the public sector and exploitative practices in the private sector; (iii) provision of improved training for public administrators and of incentives to retain qualified women and men in public service; and (iv) provision of measures to encourage wider participation in the design and implementation of basic education programmes.

I. 3. Designing policies to improve basic education

20. The preconditions for educational quality, equity and efficiency, are set in the early childhood years, making attention to early childhood care and development essential to the achievement of basic education goals. Basic education must correspond to actual needs, interests, and problems of the participants in the learning process. The relevance of curricula could be enhanced by linking literacy and numeracy skills and scientific concepts with learners' concerns and earlier experiences, for example, nutrition, health, and work. While many needs vary considerably within and among countries, and therefore much of a curriculum should be sensitive to local conditions, there are also many universal needs and shared concerns which should be addressed in education curricula and in educational messages. Issues such as protecting the environment, achieving a balance between population and resources, slowing the spread of AIDS, and preventing drug abuse are everyone's issues.

21. Specific strategies addressed to improve the conditions of schooling may focus on: learners and the learning process, personnel (teachers, administrators, others), curriculum and learning assessment, materials and physical facilities. Such strategies should be conducted in an integrated manner; their design, management, and evaluation should take into account the acquisition of knowledge and problem-solving skills as well as the social, cultural, and ethical dimensions of human development. Depending on the outcomes desired, teachers have to be trained accordingly, whilst benefiting from in-service programmes as well as other incentives of opportunity which put a premium on the achievement of these outcomes; curriculum and assessment must reflect a variety of criteria while materials –and conceivably buildings and facilities as well– must be adapted along the same lines. In some countries, the strategy may include ways to improve conditions for teaching and learning such that absenteeism is reduced and learning time increased. In order to meet the educational needs of groups not covered by formal schooling, appropriate strategies are needed for non-formal education. These include but go far beyond the aspects described above, but may also give special attention to the need for coordination with other forms of education, to the support of all interested partners, to sustained financial resources andn to full community participation. An example for such an approach applied to literacy can be found in UNESCO's Plan of Action for the Eradication of Illiteracy by the Year 2000. Other strate-

gies still may rely on the media to meet the broader education needs of the entire community. Such strategies need to be linked to formal education, non-formal education or a combination of both. The use of the communications media holds a tremendous potential to educate the public and to share important information among those who need to know.

22. Expanding access to basic education of satisfactory quality is an effective way to improve equity. Ensuring that girls and women stay involved in basic education activities until they have attained at least the agreed necessary level of learning, can be encouraged through special measures designed, wherever possible, in consultation with them. Similar approaches are necessary to expand learning opportunities for various disadvantaged groups.

23. Efficiency in basic education does not mean providing education at the lowest cost, but rather the most effective use of all resources (human, organizational and financial) to produce the desired levels of access and of necessary learning achievement. The foregoing considerations of relevance, quality, and equity are not alternatives to efficiency but represent the specific conditions within which efficiency should be attained. For some programmes, efficiency will require more, not fewer, resources. However, if existing resources can be used by more learners or if the same learning targets can be reached at a lower cost per learner, then the capacity of basic education to meet the targets of access and achievement for presently underseved groups can be increased.

I.4. Improving managerial, analytical and technological capacities

24. Many kinds of expertise and skills will be needed to carry out these initiatives. Managerial and supervisory personnel, as well as planners, school architects, teacher educators, curriculum developers, researchers, analysts, etc., are important for any strategy to improve basic education, but many countries do not provide specialized training to prepare them for their responsibilities; this is especially true in literacy and other out-of-school basic education activities. A broadening of outlook toward basic education will be a crucial prerequisite to the effective co-ordination of efforts among these many participants, and strengthening and developing capacities for planning and management at regional and local levels with a greater sharing of responsibilities will be necessary in many countries. Pre-and in-service training programmes for key personnel should be initiated, or strengthened where they do exist. Such training can be particularly useful in introducing administrative reforms and innovative management and supervisory techniques.

25. The technical services and mechanisms to collect, process and analyze data pertaining to basic education can be improved in all countries. This is an urgent task in many countries that have little reliable information and/or research on the basic learning needs of their people and on existing basic education activities. A country's information and knowledge base is vital in preparing and implementing a plan of action. One major implication of the focus on learning acquisition is that systems have to be developed and improved to assess the performance of individual learners and delivery mechanisms. Process and outcome assessment data should serve as the core of a management information system for basic education.

26. The quality and delivery of basic education can be enhanced through the judicious use of instructional technologies. Where such technologies are not now widely used, their introduction will require the selection and/or development of suitable technologies, acquisition of the necessary equipment and operating systems, and the recruitment or training of teachers and other educational personnel to work with them. The definition of a suitable technology varies by societal characteristics and will change rapidly over time as new technologies (educational radio and television, computers, and various audio-visual instructional devices) become less expensive and more adaptable to a range of environments. The use of modern technology can also improve the management of basic education. Each country may reexamine periodically its present and potential technological capacity in relation to its basic educational needs and resources.

I. 5. Mobilizing information and communication channels

27. New possibilities are emerging which already show a powerful impact on meeting basic learning needs, and it is clear that the educational potential of these new possibilities has barely been tapped. These new possibilities exist largely as a result of two converging forces, both recent by-products of the general development process. First, the quantity of information available in the world –much of it relevant to survival and basic well-being– is exponentially greater than that available only a few years ago, and the rate of its growth is accelerating. A synergistic effect occurs when important information is coupled with a second modern advance– the new capacity

to communicate among the people of the world. The opportunity exists to harness this force and use it positively, consciously, and with design, in order to contribute to meeting defined learning needs.

I. 6. Building partnerships and mobilizing resources

28. In designing the plan of action and creating a supportive policy environment for promoting basic education, maximum use of opportunities should be considered to expand existing collaborations and to bring together new partners: e.g., family and community organizations, non-governmental and other voluntary associations, teachers' unions, other professional groups, employers, the media, political parties, co-operatives, universities, research institutions, religious bodies, as well as education authorities and other government departments and services (labour, agriculture, health, information, commerce, industry, defence, etc.). The human and organizational resources these domestic partners represent need to be effectively mobilized to play their parts in implementing the plan of action. Partnerships at the community level and at the intermediate and national levels should be encouraged, they can help harmonize activities, utilize resources more effectively, and mobilize additional financial and human resources where necessary.

29. Governments and their partners can analyze the current allocation and use of financial and other resources for education and training in different sectors to determine if additional support for basic education can be obtained by:

(i) improving efficiency,
(ii) mobilizing additional sources of funding within and outside the government budget, and
(iii) allocating funds within existing education and training budgets, taking into account efficiency and equity concerns. Countries where the total fiscal support for education is low need to explore the possibility of reallocating some public funds used for other purposes to basic education.

30. Assessing the resources actually or potentially available for basic education and comparing them to the budget estimates underlying the plan of action, can help identify possible inadequacies of resources that may affect the scheduling of planned activities over time or may require choices to be made. Countries that require external assistance to meet the basic learning needs of their people can use the resource assessment and plan of action as a basis for discussions with their international partners and for coordinating external funding.

31. The individual learners themselves constitute a vital human resource that needs to be mobilized. The demand for, and participation in, learning opportunities cannot simply be assumed, but must be actively encouraged. Potential learners need to see that the benefits of basic education activities exceed the costs the participants must bear, such as earnings foregone and reduced time available for community and household activities and for leisure. Women and girls especially may be deterred from taking full advantage of basic education opportunities because of reasons specific to individual cultures. Such barriers to participation may be overcome through the use of incentives and by programmes adapted to the local context and seen by the learners, their families and communities to be "productive activities". Also, learners tend to benefit more from education when they are partners in the instructional process, rather than treated simply as "inputs" or "beneficiaries". Attention to the issues of demand and participation will help assure that the learners' personal capacities are mobilized for education.

32. Family resources, including time and mutual support, are vital for the success of basic education activities. Families can be offered incentives and assistance to ensure that their resources are invested to enable all family members to benefit as fully and equitably as possible from basic education opportunities.

33. The preeminent role of teachers as well as of other educational personnel in providing quality basic education needs to be recognized and developed to optimize their contribution. This must entail measures to respect teachers' trade union rights and professional freedoms, and to improve their working conditions and status, notably in respect to their recruitment, initial and in-service training, remuneration and career development possibilities as well as to allow teachers to fulfill their aspirations social obligations, and ethical responsibilities.

34. In partnerships with school and community workers, libraries need to become a vital link in providing educational resources for all learners –pre-school through adulthood– in school and non-school settings. There is therefore a need to recognize libraries as invaluable information resources.

35. Community associations, co-operatives, religious bodies, and other non-governmental

organizations also play important roles in supporting and in providing basic education. Their experience, expertise, energy and direct relationships with various constituencies are valuable resources for identifying and meeting basic learning needs. Their active involvement in partnerships for basic education should be promoted through policies and mechanisms that strengthen their capacities and recognize their autonomy.

II. PRIORITY ACTION AT REGIONAL LEVEL

36. Basic learning needs must be met through collaborative action within each country, but there are many forms of co-operation between countries with similar conditions and concerns that could, and do, assist in this endeavour. Regions have already developed plans such as The Jakarta Plan of Action on Human Resources adopted by ESCAP in 1988. By exchanging information and experience, pooling expertise, sharing facilities, and undertaking joint activities, several countries, working together, can increase their resource base and lower costs to their mutual benefit. Such arrangements are often set up among neighboring countries (sub-regional), among all countries in a major geo-cultural region, or among countries sharing a common language or having cultural and commercial relations. Regional and international organizations often play an important role in facilitating such co-operation between countries. In the following discussion, all such arrangements are included in the term "regional". In general, existing regional partnerships will need to be strengthened and provided with the resources necessary for their effective functioning in helping countries meet the basic learning needs of their populations.

II. 1. Exchanging information, experience and expertise

37. Various regional mechanisms, both intergovernmental and nongovernmental, promote co-operation in education and training, health, agricultural development, research and information, communications, and in other fields relevant to meeting basic learning needs. Such mechanisms can be further developed in response to the evolving needs of their constituents. Among several possible examples are the four regional programmes established through UNESCO in the 1980s to support national efforts to achieve universal primary education and eliminate adult illiteracy:

- Major Project in the Field of Education in Latin America and the Caribbean;
- Regional Programme for the Eradication of Illiteracy in Africa;
- Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL);
- Regional Programme for the Universalization and Renewal of Primary Education and the Eradication of Illiteracy in the Arab States by the Year 2000 (ARABUPEAL).

38. In addition to the technical and policy consultations organized in connection with these programmes, other existing mechanisms can be used for consulting on policy issues in basic education. The conferences of ministers of education organized by UNESCO and by several regional organizations, the regular sessions of the regional commissions of the United Nations, and certain trans-regional conferences organized by the Commonwealth Secretariat, CONFEMEN (standing conference of ministers of education of francophone countries), the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and the Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (ISESCO), could be used for this purpose as needs arise. In addition, numerous conferences and meetings organized by nongovernmental bodies provide opportunities for professionals to share information and views on technical and policy issues. The conveners of these various conferences and meetings may consider ways of extending participation, where appropriate, to include representatives of other constituencies engaged in meeting basic learning needs.

39. Full advantage should be taken of opportunities to share media messages or programmes that can be exchanged among countries or collaboratively developed, especially where language and cultural similarities extend beyond political boundaries.

II. 2. Undertaking joint activities

40. There are many possible joint activities among countries in support of national efforts to implement action plans for basic education. Joint activities should be designed to exploit econo-

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mies of scale and the comparative advantages of participating countries. Six areas where this form of regional collaboration seems particularly appropriate are:

(i) training of key personnel, such as planners, managers, teacher educators, researchers, etc.;
(ii) efforts to improve information collection and analysis;
(iii) research;
(iv) production of educational materials;
(v) use of communication media to meet basic learning needs; and
(vi) management and use of distance education services. Here, too, there are several existing mechanisms that could be utilized to foster such activities, including UNESCO's International Institute of Educational Planning and its networks of trainees and research as well as IBE's information network and the UNESCO Institute for Education, the five networks for educational innovation operating under UNESCO's auspices, the research and review advisory groups (RRAGs) associated with the International Development Research Centre, the Commonwealth of Learning, the Asian Cultural Center for UNESCO, the participatory network established by the International Council for Adult Education, and the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, which links major national research institutions in some 35 countries. Certain multilateral and bilateral development agencies that have accumulated valuable experience in one or more of these areas might be interested in participating in joint activities. The five United Nations regional commissions could provide further support to such regional collaboration, especially by mobilizing policymakers to take appropriate action.

III. PRIORITY ACTION AT WORLD LEVEL

41. The world community has a well-established record of co-operation in education and development. However, international funding for education stagnated during the early 1980s; at the same time, many countries have been handicapped by growing debt burdens and economic relationships that channel their financial and human resources to wealthier countries. Because concern about the isues in basic education is shared by industrialized and developing countries alike, international co-operation can provide valuable support for national efforts and regional actions to implement the expanded vision of basic Education for All. Time, energy, and funding directed to basic education are perhaps the most profound investment in people and in the future of a country which can be made; there is a clear need and strong moral and economic argument for international solidarity to provide technical co-operation and financial assistance to countries that lack the resources to meet the basic learning needs of their populations.

III. 1. Cooperation within the international context

42. Meeting basic learning needs constitutes a common and universal human responsibility. The prospects for meeting basic learning needs around the world are determined in part by the dynamics of international relations and trade. With the current relaxation of tensions and the decreasing number of armed conflicts, there are now real possibilities to reduce the tremendous waste of military spending and shift those resources into socially useful areas, including basic education. The urgent task of meeting basic learning needs may require such a reallocation between sectors, and the world community and individual governments need to plan this conversion of resources for peaceful uses with courage and vision, and in a thoughtful and careful manner. Similarly, international measures to reduce or eliminate current imbalances in trade relations and to reduce debt burdens must be taken to enable many low-income countries to rebuild their own economies, releasing and retaining human and financial resources needed for development and for providing basic education to their populations. Structural adjustment policies should protect appropriate funding levels for education.

III. 2. Enhancing national capacities

43. International support should be provided, on request, to countries seeking to develop the national capacities needed for planning and managing basic education programmes and services (see section I. 4). Ultimate responsibility rests within each nation to design and manage its own programmes to meet the learning needs of all its population. International support could include

training and institutional development in data collection, analysis and research, technological innovation, and educational methodologies. Management information systems and other modern management methods could also be introduced, with an emphasis on low and middle level managers. These capabilities will be even more in demand to support quality improvements in primary education and to introduce innovative out-of-school programmes. In addition to direct support to countries and institutions, international assistance can also be usefully channelled to support the activities of international, regional and other inter-country structures that organize joint research, training and information exchanges. The latter should be based on, and supported by, existing institutions and programmes, if need be improved and strengthened, rather than on the establishment of new structures. Support will be especially valuable for technical cooperation among developing countries, among whom both circumstances and resources available to respond to circumstances are often similar.

III. 3. Providing sustained long-term support for national and regional actions

44. Meeting the basic learning needs of all people in all countries is obviously a long-term undertaking. This *Framework* provides guidelines for preparing national and subnational plans of action for the development of basic education through a long-term commitment of governments and their national partners to work together to reach the targets and achieve the objectives they set for themselves. International agencies and institutions, many of which are sponsors, co-sponsors and associate sponsors of the World Conference on Education for All, should actively seek to plant together and sustain their long-term support for the kinds of national and regional actions outlined in the preceding sections. In particular, the core sponsors of the Education for All initiative (UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, World Bank) affirm their commitments to supporting the priority areas for international action presented below and to making appropriate arrangements for meeting the objectives of Education for All, each acting within its mandate, special responsibilities, and decisions of its governing bodies. Given that UNESCO is the UN agency with a particular responsibility for education, it will give priority to implementing the *Framework for Action* and to facilitating provision of services needed for reinforced international co-ordination and co-operation.

45. Increased international funding is needed to help the less developed countries implement their own autonomous plans of action in line with the expanded vision of basic Education for All. Genuine partnerships characterized by co-operation and joint long-term commitments will accomplish more and provide the basis for a substantial increase in overall funding for this important sub-sector of education. Upon governments' request, multilateral and bilateral agencies should focus on supporting priority actions, particularly at the country level (see section I), in areas such as the following:

(a) The design or updating of national and subnational multisectoral plans of action (see section I. 1), which will need to be elaborated very early in the 1990s. Both financial and technical assistance are needed by many developing countries, particularly in collecting and analyzing data, as well as in organizing domestic consultations.

(b) National efforts and related inter-country co-operation to attain a satisfactory level of quality and relevance in primary education (cf. sections I. 3 and II above). Experiences involving the participation of families, local communities, and non-governmental organizations in increasing the relevance and improving the quality of education could profitably be shared among countries.

(c) The provision of universal primary education in the economically poorer countries. International funding agencies should consider negotiating arrangements to provide long-term support, on a case-by-case basis, to help countries move toward universal primary education according to their timetable. The external agencies should examine current assistance practices in order to find ways of effectively assisting basic education programmes which do not require capital –and technology– intensive assistance, but often need longer-term budgetary support. In this context, greater attention should be given to criteria for development co-operation in education to include more than mere economic considerations.

(d) Programmes designed to meet the basic learning needs of disadvantaged groups, out-of-school youth, and adults with little or no access to basic learning opportunities. All partners can share their experience and expertise in designing and implementing innovative measures and activities, and focus their funding for basic education on specific categories and groups (e.g., women, the rural poor, the disabled) to improve significantly the learning opportunities and conditions available for them.

(e) Education programmes for women and girls. These programmes should be designed to eliminate the social and cultural barriers which have discouraged or even excluded women and girls from benefits of regular education programmes, as well as to promote equal opportunities in all aspects of their lives.

(f) Education programmes for refugees. The programmes run by such organizations as the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) and the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine (UNRWA) need more substantial and reliable long-term financial support for this recognized international responsibility. Where countries of refuge need international financial and technical assistance to cope with the basic needs of refugees, including their learning needs, the international community can help to share this burden through increased cooperation. The world community will also endeavour to ensure that people under occupation or displaced by war and other calamities continue to have access to basic education programmes that preserve their cultural identity.

(g) Basic education programmes of all kinds in countries with high rates of illiteracy (as in sub-Saharan Africa) and with large illiterate populations (as in South Asia). Substantial assistance will be needed to reduce significantly the world's large number of illiterate adults.

(h) Capacity building for research and planning and the experimentation of small-scale innovations. The success of Education for All actions will ultimately be determined by the capacity of each country to design and implement programs that reflect national conditions. A strengthened knowledge base nourished by research findings and the lessons of experiments and innovations as well as the availability of competent educational planners will be essential in this respect.

46. The coordination of external funding for education is an area of shared responsibility at country level, in which host governments need to take lead to ensure the efficient use of resources in accordance with their priorities. Development funding agencies should explore innovative and more flexible modalities of co-operation in consultation with the governments and institutions with which they work and co-operate in regional initiatives, such as the Task Force of Donors to African Education. Other forums need to be developed in which funding agencies and developing countries can collaborate in the design of inter-country projects and discuss general issues relating to financial assistance.

III. 4. Consultations on policy issues

47. Existing channels of communication and forums for consultation among the many partners involved in meeting basic learning needs should be fully utilized in the 1990s to maintain and extend the international consensus underlying this Framework for Action. Some channels and forums, such as the biannual International Conference on Education, operate globally, while others focus on particular regions or groups of countries or categories of partners. Insofar as possible, organizers should seek to coordinate these consultations and share results.

48. Moreover, in order to maintain and expand the Education for All initiative, the international community will need to make appropriate arrangements, which will ensure co-operation among the interested agencies using the existing mechanisms insofar as possible: (i) to continue advocacy of basic Education for All, building on the momentum generated by the World Conference; (ii) to facilitate sharing information on the progress made in achieving basic education targets set by countries for themselves and on the resources and organizational requirements for successful initiatives; (iii) to encourage new partners to join this global endeavor, and (iv) to ensure that all partners are fully aware of the importance of maintaining strong support for basic education.

INDICATIVE PHASING OF IMPLEMENTATION FOR THE 1990s

49. Each country, in determining its own intermediate goals and targets and in designing its plan of action for achieving them, will, in the process, establish a timetable to harmonize and schedule specific activities. Similarly, regional and international action will need to be scheduled to help countries meet their targets on time. The following general schedule suggests an indicative phasing during the 1990s; of course, certain phases may need to overlap and the dates indicated will need to be adapted to individual country and organizational contexts.

1) Governments and organizations set specific targets and complete or update their plans of

action to meet basic learning needs (cf. section I. 1); take measures to create a supportive policy environment (I. 2); devise policies to improve the relevance, quality, equity and efficiency of basic education services and programmes (I. 3); design the means to adapt information and communication media to meet basic learning needs (I. 5) and mobilize resources and establish operational partnerships (I. 6). International partners assist countries, through direct support and through regional co-operation, to complete this preparatory stage. (1990-1991).

2) Development agencies establish policies and plans for the 1990s, in line with their commitments to sustained, long-term support for national and regional actions and increase their financial and technical assistance to basic education accordingly (III. 3). All partners strengthen and use relevant existing mechanisms for consultation and co-operation and establish procedures for monitoring progress at regional and international levels. (1990-1993)
3) First stage of implementation of plans of action: national coordinating bodies monitor implementation and propose appropriate adjustments to plans. Regional and international supporting actions are carried out. (1990-1995)
4) Governments and organizations undertake mid-term evaluation of the implementation of their respective plans and adjust them as needed. Governments, organizations and development agencies undertake comprehensive policy reviews at regional and global levels. (1995-1996)
5) Second stage of implementation of plans of action and of supporting action at regional and international levels. Development agencies adjust their plans as necessary and increase their assistance to basic education accordingly. (1996-2000)
6) Governments, organizations and development agencies evaluate achievements and undertake comprehensive policy review at regional and global levels. (2000-2001)

50. There will never be a better time to renew commitment to the inevitable and long-term effort to meet the basic learning needs of all children, youth and adults. This effort will require a much greater and wiser investment of resources in basic education and training than ever before, but benefits will begin accruing immediately and will extend well into the future –where the global challenges of today will be met, in good measure, by the world community's commitment and perseverance in attaining its goal of education for all.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN THE FUTURE

Jesús M. Gurriarán(*)

The International Congress on "Planning and Management of the Development of Education" took place in Mexico City from 26 to 30 March 1990, with the participation of 360 specialists from 101 countries. It was jointly organized by UNESCO's Educational Policies and Planning Division and the Mexican Secretariat for Public Relations. The author takes position on the main themes discussed by the participants. The work of this Congress provides an important guideline for the development of education in the years to come.

Planning is important in all spheres of life as a foundation for diagnosis, a starting point to reduce margins of error in decision-taking and as groundwork for rational management of resources and as a previsional basis for the unforeseen.

In order to analyze future trends of educational planning, any reflection has to consider the reality of the world, which every day is more complex and contradictory. While the volume of information is in constant growth and new communication techniques multiply the possibilities of immediate dissemination of new knowledge, there is, alongside with this spectacular progress, an ever widening gap between the developed world and the developing world as regards access to that knowledge.

In the future, the educational planner cannot plan if he does not take into consideration the radical changes in education occurring during this last decade of the twentieth century, as a consequence of the revolution in the field of sciences; but he cannot either remain aloof of the conditions of poverty and misery, in which immense numbers of people live –doomed to merely survive, without access to the advantages of progress, and sharing illiteracy, malnutrition and insalubrity.

Our surrounding reality is such that we cannot consider the fight against underdevelopment only from the point of view of economic achievement. And although production of material goods is considered essential to gain welfare for all, economic growth should not be obtained to the detriment of cultural and educational development for the majority of people. In the strive to reduce the gaps, which isolate large population groups from the benefits of progress, efforts in education have to be directed more particularly towards meeting their basic learning needs (1).

Today, there is a risk that the more advanced societies will try to obtain short-term dividends from their isolationist policies towards poorer societies. But only a global solution to the immense problems mankind endures today could produce lasting benefits for all. And such a solution can only come from efforts of prevision and solidarity going beyond socio-economic and geopolitical borders between abundance and scarcity, education and illiteracy, health and illness. In this context, future educational planning will have to materialize, project and take shape in global approaches, long-term horizons and solidary policies.

Planning as part of the exercise of government

After the beginning of educational planning in the decade of the fifties, the sixties saw great expansion of educational planning.

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(1) –CMEPT. "Documents de travail pour la Conférence mondiale sur l'education por tous", Thailand, 1990.
–UNESCO "25 C/111-Meeting Basic Learning Needs", UNESCO, Paris, 1989.

In the midst of the economic growth of that time, the main task of educational planning was to channel the rapid expansion of educational systems (2). Most countries thus set up central planning units, whose task was to provide technical support for the formulation of objectives and priorities for national education. Even in cases where responsibility for execution was with regional, municipal or institutional services, the task of elaborating educational policies and programmes was always in the hands of central organs. During that time, educational planning was part of centralized political decision-taking as one function of the exercise of government.

The structure of the State was then generally highly centralized. That was the case of most of the newly independent states, which soon went about consolidating their national identity by concentrating power. In that context, economic planning in general and educational planning, in particular, were seen as yet another prerogative of the central power. However, the power balance cannot always be in an immutable relationship between the centre and the periphery. The centre of such a relationship may vary according to the moment and to changes taking place in the socio-cultural and/or political-administrative context. Educational planning cannot develop independently of such changes, and it becomes more or less centralized according to the degree of concentration in the State reform.

From the very beginning of educational planning, attempts were made to link decisions in education with all the aspects which determine the cultural life and the productive capacity of countries. Thus, educational planners tried from the very outset to found their proposals in the reality of the economic and social evolution. It is therefore not a surprise that the periods, during which education expanded most –the sixties and seventies– were also times of rapid expansion of the productive systems.

Achievements of educational planning

More than three decades have gone by, since educational planning saw the light and was carried into practice in Latin America (3). The concept itself and its practice spread rapidly in the world and played an extensive role in the seventies in the definition of educational policy decisions and elaboration of education plans and reforms. Among the achievements of educational planning, we should mention the following:

- The progressive development of methods and instruments to diagnose, project and programme, based on principles and techniques of prevision, productivity and budgetary assignations (4).
- Plans, programmes, projects and budgets based on prospective, sectoral and macro-economic studies.
- Its contribution to extending educational opportunities.

In effect, it is commonly admitted that educational planning has contributed a great deal to expanding education in the world. We can in particular observe how general basic education has become a priority field for educational systems and has experienced unusual growth. Policies and strategies worked out in different social and economic circumstances have permitted important innovations in this field and have given rise to many pedagogical initiatives.

Has educational planning become less relevant?

Once the peak period of expansion had passed, and probably as a consequence of the general uncertainty facing educational systems today, some authors feel that planning has lost a great deal of its original prestige (5).

On the one hand, and as a consequence of the economic crisis, the educational systems are no longer a priority in the sharing out of public funds. In effect, public expenditure on education as a percentage of total public expenditure has decreased in most countries. In many Third World countries, public expenditure on education has even diminished in absolute figures.

Each education system endures the crisis specter differently. The gap in education expenditure between developing and industrialized countries was one to seventeen in 1983 (6). Whereas developed countries adopt

(2) F. Caillods. "Synthèse de l'atelier de l'IIPE sur les perspectives de la planification de l'éducation", IIEP, UNESCO, 1989.

(3) R. Diez Hochleitner. "Prospectiva, reformas y planificación de la educación". IV Semana Monográfica, Fundación Santillana, Madrid, 1989.

(4) S. Romero Lozano. "O planejamento da educação". ILPES/MEC., Brasilia, 1980.

(5) F. Caillods. Op. cit.

(6) W. García. "Notas sobre las políticas de ajuste y las lógicas de contención". CNPQ, Brasilia, 1989.

policies, which do not result in major restrictions for the education sector, the situation becomes particularly dramatic in the poor countries. In some cases, top level public finance people, with the complicity of politicians and educational planners, decide to reduce investments in education, cut programmes and establish priorities, which do not guarantee a reasonable level of quality. This contributes very rapidly to educational planning losing the relevance it had in the past.

In these conditions, it becomes more difficult every day to modify the overall situation. But a new consensus is emerging: if we do not want to resort to nihilist solutions, educational policy, planning and management must continue striving to identify and invest new resources so as to enable education to regain the role in society it had reached in the seventies (7).

Parallel with the economic crisis, we also see a governability crisis appearing gradually. The role of the State in society is openly questioned, and its incapacity to face social demand, the problems of indebtedness or excessive bureaucratization is pointed out. Doubts are even heard in some cases as to certain governments' ability to re-establish socio-political stability in the disruptive situations we see here and there. The State, there, does no longer seem able to face social demands. The State apparatus is so fragile that it weakens the social planning process and therefore also educational planning. It is felt in some circles that the public administration is incapable of carrying out its most elementary tasks. Texts are published and disseminated in educational circles proposing neoliberal models advocating –even in developing countries– resolute privatizing of education, thereby abandoning any form of educational planning at the State level.

In the midst of this apparent crisis, some authors express the opinion that planning has not shown capacity to search solutions, or even palliatives, to problems linked with training. With unemployment settling in both in developed and in developing countries, there are people who advocate drastic cuts in public funds devoted to training. In answer to this siren singing, and unsatisfied with results so far, some countries have starting making serious cuts in their education expenditure and in the education administration; with improvization settling in, the latter then prove incapable of presenting convincing results in terms of yield capacity and efficiency.

(7) W. Garcia. Op. cit.

However, the Mexico Congress and the results of the prior world survey on the state and perspectives of educational planning do not confirm this pessimism. On the contrary, the evidence and data submitted to the congress underline the new and decisive role, which educational planning and management are beginning to play along the lines of the engagements made in Jomtien.

Future prospects of educational planning

Seen against the background of today's crisis situation, and with the new objectives educational planning has assumed, it is now facing the greatest challenge of its brief history. It is obviously difficult in the present circumstances to provide better quality and equality as regards educational opportunity, and there is some risk of deep frustration among those in charge of educational administration and policies. More than ever, educational planning has to define its future purpose, in response to the different situations which may occur. Among these goals, the following should be mentioned:

- *Rationalizing Decision-taking.* The scarcity of resources assigned to education –which is considered inexorable by some– makes it necessary to make a choice among different options according to rationality criteria and to results of periodic evaluation. In this manner, educational planning may turn into a very useful saving device.
- *Setting Up of Priorities.* With the diminution of resources, this task becomes one of the essential aspects of educational planning. Most Third World countries thus intend to concentrate efforts in the years to come on meeting the basic education needs of all the population. For the planner, this demands an articulate programming of all crucial components, such as staff training, elaboration of teaching materials and development of educational management at the basic levels. This task of setting up priorities sometimes goes beyond the simple enumeration of action areas and may involve a new all-encompassing political-educational project, as in the case of Latin America and the Caribbean (8).
- *Reforming the Educational System.* Social demand for innovation of the prevailing

(8) Documentation of the UNESCO. PROMEDLAC/ 3. The Major Project in the Field of Education in Latin America and the Caribbean.

conditions of education may indicate a need for deep-going and large-scale reforms. Such reforms cannot be undertaken casually and spontaneously; over and above adequate socio-political conditions, they demand an educational planning effort comprising a serious diagnosis of the state of the whole sector, a programme of prospective studies, creation of a network of high level institutions to take charge of research and training of trainers, elaboration of educational policies acceptable to public opinion and an administrative reform in line with the proposed overall reform.

- *Democratizing Education and Society.* Democratization should doubtlessly be one of the essential goals of future educational planning (9). Education should above all contribute to the overall formation of a society member capable of acting freely and critically in a democratic society. This also comprises being able to fight inequality and social injustice and to cooperate with a spirit of solidarity in improving living conditions for the entire population. Seen from this perspective, it is the planner's duty to promote education systems which, over and above ensuring acquisition of knowledge, encourage responsible participation of all members of society in social, national and international life and stimulate learning of communication, development of creativity and capacity to adapt to change.
- *Mobilizing of Local Community Potentials.* Specialists have for years expressed doubts as to the efficiency of centralized models (10). This also includes planning and administration of education, particularly as regards the capacity to adapt central planning to the specific needs of the different regions of a country and to stimulate the educational potentials of each local community. With these doubts in mind, it is today considered that one of the main purposes of educational planning will be to contribute to drastically reducing inequalities among regions (11). In this respect, the Mexico congress took position openly for a planning, which can be exercised locally, and which is able to mobilize the educational potentials, which local communities possess.

(9) C. Braslavsky and others. "Educación en la transición a la democracia". UNESCO/ OREALC, Santiago, 1989.

(10) E. Romero and C. Levano. "Regionalismo y centralismo". Amanta, Lima, 1969.

(11) G. Carron and Ta Ngoc Chau. "Reducción de los desequilibrios regionales y planificación de la educación". IIPE/CINTERPLAN, Caracas, 1988.

Planning approaches

Educational planning approaches have been changing over the years, preferring, at times, sectoral, central, standard-setting and technical action, at others, intersectoral, decentralized, strategic and participation-oriented action (12). In spite of these different emphases which will examined in more detail in the following paragraphs, there is no planning model, which is applied independently of other dimensions.

As already indicated, educational planning started as a function of the central level. But centralized bureaucratic structures have often resulted in rigidity and delays in working out educational plans, programmes and projects and have been incapable of responding to specific situations. It is not a surprise in these conditions that the trend has turned to more decentralized approaches and to basic planning, in particular as regards personnel matters, budget, supplies and investments.

At the outset, a sectoral focus was adopted for educational planning. But the planners soon realized that education cannot develop outside its context and without considering the limitations –be they administrative, financial or political– imposed by that context. In effect, indicators of educational development, such as school enrolment rates, repetition, dropout and promotion rates, very clearly show how much it is dependent on the economic, political and social context. It is therefore not strange that education planners, through intersectoral planning, try to coordinate their plans for education with the larger project for society as a whole.

The standard-setting and programming character which educational planning had in the beginning has changed, and it has become more prospective or strategic (13). Recognition of the slow evolution of educational systems and the evident impact of economic crisis has led to searching ways of reaching one or other priority goal more rapidly –for example, basic schooling or literacy– or to planning emergency actions to solve specific problems. To sum up such strategic planning experiences, it can be said that transitory measures generally prosper

(12) OREALC/Spanish Government. "IV Reunión Técnica de REPLAD. Informe Final". REPLAD, Quito, 1989.

(13) F. Caillods. Op. cit.

only if they are tied in with longer term educational projects or social policies. In no case should short-term management, due to economic instability, prevent a longer term vision based on analysis of the scale of probable evolutions, even when the idea is to formulate strategies to create special conditions or channel energies.

Planning in the beginning was also characterized by the emphasis it placed on conceptual, technical and methodological aspects and by its fundamental commitment to work out theoretical patterns and previsional models and instruments. As time goes, emphasis has changed to other features more rooted in reality and in participation (14).

That is how educational policies have sometimes been worked out in consultation with, and with the participation of, the different components of the educational community: representatives of research centres, parents, teachers, directors, students, municipal delegates, community members, technicians and authorities at all levels. Planning is thus evolving towards more representativity and transparence in decision-taking. The results of some, now forgotten projects reveal that the participation of community groups in educational planning can contribute to improve it, among others by ensuring that education is more adapted to local needs (15).

Planning trends

The economic crisis, the education crisis and the social planning crisis all prove that educational planning today is more indispensable than ever. But to be as efficient as possible, education planning should be oriented more towards global processes and not cover just education. Education is not a function isolated from the rest of society; it is part of a wider set-up. The educational planner can therefore not ignore such topics as civic rights, ethnic minorities 'rights and other social groups' rights (16). Neither may he limit planning to a certain level of education, be it preschool, primary, secondary or higher; he must plan integrally the cognitive development of the child, the young and the adult. In that perspective, he must also plan education for a democratic behaviour of society members or for the protection of the envirommment. Among the new tendencies in the horizon of educational planning, the following should be analyzed:

- *Planning as a State/Civil Society Concerted Effort.* The powerful emergence of civil society does not do away with the State's irreplaceable responsibility as regards enabling all members of society to fully develop their potentials by providing adequate opportunities for access to knowledge (17). That responsibility is one of the foundations of the State and cannot therefore be transferred elsewhere. It is up to the State to negotiate with all the active forces of civil society to facilitate access for each of its communities to the basic resources, which ensure an adequate level of education. Some kind of central planning services will presumably be needed at the national level to mobilize the resources available for this purpose; but it will have to be done through some kind of concertation between what the State proposes and what civil society wants. That concertation is one of the essential tasks of future educational planning.
- *Decentralization of Educational Planning.* The local and community dimension seems ideal to identify and develop new educational undertakings more in line with the needs and expectations of the population. Such education planning is becoming more frequent every day, rooted in each community and capable of operating in a decentralized manner; planning which seeks to engage all the active forces of society in a common task; planning supported by the central government organs, but not controlled by them. Here each community or municipality has to assume responsibility for educational provision with the active help of all its forces (18). But to do that, it will be necessary at all levels to create an analytical and programming capacity, which does not always exist. It would be

(14) J B. Arrien and R. Matus. "La planificación participativa de la educación". UNESCO/CAP, San José, 1988.
(15) OREALC, "Boletín de Educación". No 23-24, Santiago, Chile, 1978.
(16) Juan B. Arrien. "Discussion Papers". International Congress on "Planning and Management of the Development of Education". ED/EPP, UNESCO, Mexico, 1990.
(17) Juan Carlos Tedesco. "State Reform and Educational Policies in Latin America". (ED. 90/CPA. 401/DP. 1/5) UNESCO/OREALC, Santiago, Chile, March 1990.
(18) OREALC. "Taller regional sobre metodología del planeamiento de la educación para el desarrollo de áreas rurales. Informe final". MEC, Brasilia, 1978.

counterproductive to transfer responsibilities, without ensuring beforehand that the institutional and financial conditions exist to find the most adequate solutions locally.

- *Role of Parents, Teachers and Students in the Planning Process.* There are more and more movements for population participation in social change, and we have all witnessed the role they can play in political transformations (19). They constitute a very important cultural and educational fact, and the education establishment connot continue to turn its back to this phenomenon. The State is in crisis due to lack of identity and of resources, and deep-going transformations have to be made in public structures to facilitate a more democratic utilization of its services. That is also the case with education and planning structures, which should be renovated in order to pave the way for more participation in the planning process, of parents, teachers and students. It is not only a question of compensating for the insufficience of public resources by bringing in additional resources from the population. The idea is more to stimulate more democratic decision-taking by bringing in an increasing number of actors.
- *Emphasis on the Quality of Education.* Educational quality has undergone serious deterioration as a result of the financial crisis (20). It can be said in the first place that learning conditions have suffered considerable damage, due to the negative evolution of teachers' working conditions. With worse salaries, primary school teachers prepare their classes less, and there is more absenteeism. One of the new trends in planning is a growing concern for the renovation of education and its linking with the outside world. Here difficulties are encountered in the planning process, when it comes to substantive aspects of the problem, mainly when analyzing the teaching process as such, the educational goals, plans, programmes and contents and evaluation methods and systems; that is, when results are to be measured to determine its relevance and suitability. Evaluation in this context becomes an objective and critical exercise, which should lead to a permanent revision of decisions and to concrete commitments as regards methodologies adopted and close linking of education and scientific progress (21). It is the planner's responsibility to determine measures to be adopted concerning distribution of textbooks, of equipment, concerning staff training, the duration of the schoolyear, etc. Planning therefore plays an extremely critical role; to be able to do so, it will be necessary to improve its information base through development of research and data banks.
- *Consideration of the Different Education Needs of Population Groups, as well as Multicultural and Bilingual Situations.* Educational planning cannot on its own achieve equal distribution of opportunities to all the population. This does not exempt it from the responsibility of providing priority consideration for the educational needs of the least privileged populations and for bicultural and bilingual situations often related with social marginalization (22). The task of educational planners is so much more difficult as public budgets for the sector are being compressed drastically. That is why the idea is gathering force in the Third World that State action should be concentrated on the most deprived categories so as to reach more equity. But the viability of this idea depends on political, social, economic and cultural factors, the management of which is not in the hands of the educational planner. Their action space is therefore reduced and may even shrink more if there is no concertation.
- *Research as Groundwork for the Planning Process.* We also see a growing awareness of the role of research as technical support for future proposals in the field of educational action and for decision-taking (23). Educational planning should also draw from research, which every day becomes more essential for scientific

(19) Press and Television. December 1989.

(20) UNESCO. "PROMEDLAC/3 -The Major Project in the Field of Education in Latin America and the Caribbean. Progress, Obstacles and Action Priorities for the Future". UNESCO, Guatemala, 1989.

(21) Churchill, S. and others. "Algérie. Evaluation prototype du système d'éducation et de formation professionnelle. Rapport général". UNESCO, ED/EPP, Paris, 1989.

(22) A.L. D'Emilio. (Compil.). "Mujer Indígena y educación en América Latina". UNESCO/ OREALC, Santiago, Chile, 1989.

(23) UNESCO. "Consulta Regional sobre Investigación en Educación y Toma de Decisiones en América Latina. Informe Final". OREALC, Lima, 1987.

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prevision. Only systematic research can help to detect new forms of exclusion from education and ways to confront them. Only permanent research can help the planner in his new responsiblities of avoiding exclusion of any kind.

- *Use of Informatics in order to Make Educational Planning More Effective.* Modernization is not synonymous with exclusion, on condition that general popular interests are given priority over the interests of an elite. A series of new technologies, in particular informatics, may contribute to a positive transformation of planning and decision-taking as well as to allowing participation of the population. Planning has to have at its disposal instruments to facilitate collection and processing of reliable information, in particular data bases to support evaluation (24).
- *Incorporation of New Technologies Into the Education Process.* The proliferation of new technologies affects all sectors of society and obviously also the education system. The problem is what changes are needed so that education systems can benefit all of the population by opening up access to such technologies. Such changes are, for example: qualifying the population for an adequate use of the media and adaptation to new possibilities. The education system at the end of the 20th century cannot live outside scientific and technological progress, which should be incorporated both into contents and into teaching resources. Education planners will have to make specific proposals in that direction.
- *Strengthening the Links between Education, Work and Production.* Both developed and developing countries share the concern about the role of training for work and production. The concern is not new, but the magnitude of unemployment everywhere, particularly among young people, is such that it becomes necessary to increase coordination between the education, labour and production sectors and to make an additional effort to make planning interdisciplinary. The radical changes affecting production (modification of former professions, creation of new employment structures) have direct and immediate consequences on educational systems and planning, which cannot ignore them (25).
- *Rationalizing the Use of Traditional Resources and Mobilizing New Resources for Education.* In the horizon of this end of century looms a continuation of the severe budgetary restrictions affecting education systems. Developing countries confront the situation with two kinds of actions (26):

  - rationalizing the use of available resources while resorting to experimenting new management methods. Work undertaken in this direction goes mainly to improve productivity rates and make learning more profitable by revising evaluation methods;
  - mobilizing new resources for education. Here efforts are made to modify existing structures by significantly increasing contributions from parents, organized groups and others, but we should not expect these efforts to lead to any substantial increase of funds. There is also the possibility of diversifying financing sources more through productive activities in school establishments (contracts university/private firms, productive schools, workshops in technical schools) and through private sector or family contributions.

- *Updating the Legal Framework of Education.* Many educational planners and managers do not pay particular attention to school legislation. The latter can, however, become both an unsurmountable obstacle or a powerful spur to renew education systems. The educational planner must be conscious of this reality, if he wishes to take full advantage of this medium, and if he considers that legislation is so obsolete and conservatory that an updating is necessary to take account of new realities and social and educational expectations.

(24) PROAP. "Discussion Papers", Round Table on Informatics. UNESCO, ED/EPP, Mexico, 1990.

(25) Nishida K. "Strategy of Educational Planning for the Development of Human Resources". Discussion Papers, Commission I, International Congress on "Planning and Management of Development of Education", UNESCO, ED/EPP, Mexico, 1990.

(26) Ana María Corvalán. (Compil). "El financiamiento de la Educación en período de Austeridad presupuestaria", UNESCO/OREALC, Santiago, Chile, 1990.

- *Improving the Quality of the Educational Planning Processes.* To improve the quality of the planning processes, more emphasis will probably have to be given in the years to come to the administration of education systems and organisms, making planning an element, or a phase of administration and not an autonomous process. This approach should be explored as a work hypothesis, in which the fundamental task of an education administration would be to achieve articulation between those elements, or components, of the education system –whether internal or external– which have more impact on its development. Among the internal components, we should mention: educational policies, management processes, availability of resources and pedagogical and administrative techniques; among the external components: culture, economic development, socio-political processes and scientific and technical changes.

Among the factors which may contribute to improving the educational planning processes, we should mention first of all the development of innovative methodologies. In effect, to achieve an optimal assignation and use of resources and to obtain additional financing, new instruments and methodologies will have to be applied.

But even more important to improve the educational planning process is the technical and political training of human resources assigned to this task. It is generally felt that better training of educational administration agents would be an important step towards better quality in education planning and administration. Here, an on-going critical evaluation would be required as regards the job profile and functions of educational planners and administrators (27). Their performance and the quality of the education processes are closely linked. We cannot expect effective modernization of administration or of educational planning, if substantial modifications are not made in the training of its agents. To train, prepare and qualify agents to be more competent –the goal of many countries today– requires research to elaborate specific programmes to that effect. This aspect cannot be left aside, even if better training may encourage drain towards the private sector of the more qualified agents. A first objective of training would be to create a new mentality among education leaders, whatever their level (central, regional or municipal), since a change of attitude would be required at all levels, as well as better command of technical questions in the formulation of plans, in their execution and in the evaluation of results. Today more than ever, it is indispensable for the planners to be in close touch with the economic, scientific and technological reality, which is undergoing radical transformations; training programmes must take this into account. Lastly, training should put particular emphasis on information –the collection, processing and analysis of data– because of its relevance for timely and appropriate decision-taking.

(27) REPLAD. "Diseño de programas de formación de formadores en planeamiento y administración de la educación". OREALC, Madrid, 1988.

AN ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL FINANCING AND ADMINISTRATION IN A CONTEXT OF AUSTERITY. THE CASE OF URUGUAY

Aldo E. Solari

Aldo Solari is one of the most outstanding social scientists in Latin America. From the different responsibility positions he occupied in Uruguay, his country, to Santiago, Chile, where he was Director of the ECLAC Social Division, Solari's prolific intellectual work extended from the fifties until his death in January, 1989, impregnating successive generations of Latin American sociologists, educators and economists with a scientific approach to and a critical reflexion on the social dimension of development.

With the return of democracy in Uruguay, Solari became vice-president of CODICEN, the top level of the National Public Education Administration (ANEP). Because of his wide experience, he was requested by UNESCO to prepare the following study for the expert meeting on the financing of education, with a view to examine new ways of raising more resources for education in a period of budgetary austerity. The said meeting took place in Buenos Aires in November, 1988, and was presided over by Aldo Solari. It was one of his last public appearances at international level.

During the second half of the seventies, and after many years of complete stagnation, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) began to grow and continued in 1980 and 1981, although only slightly in 1981. 1982 saw a sudden drop of about 9%, which continued in 1982, 1983 and 1984. Thus, the 1984 GDP was almost 17% lower than in 1980. In 1985, first year of the democratic government, the GDP became more stable, and in 1986 and 1987 the trend was reverted, and growth rates of 6.6% and 4.9% respectively were seen. However, in real terms, the 1987 GDP is inferior to the 1980 and 1981 GDP by almost 5.7% when compared with the better year (see Table 1).

Naturally, the GDP per capita declines more slowly than the overall GDP, although only slightly due to a very slow population growth, which again is the result of low birth rates and a substantial emigration. Thus, the figures presented in this matter are frequently erroneous, because they are based on population projections which do not correspond to reality. To mention one example: the ECLAC Statistical Yearbook shows a 1.5% increase of the GDP and a drop in the per capita GDP of 3.9%, which is unsustainable. The population shows an increase of only 5.1% between the 1975 and 1985 census, but it can only have grown by a maximum of 0.7% in that period, and the per capita GDP therefore grew, although very little, instead of decreasing. Therefore, in the years of GDP decline, the per capita GDP decreased only little (see Table 1).

What is the share of the education sector in the GDP? The question is not easy to answer. The international statistical yearbooks only refer to public spending on education and its share of the GDP. Table 1 shows the evolution of the GDP in constant prices from 1980 onwards and the respective coefficients of overall and per capita variation.

When calculating the education share, we come up against a very awkward problem: Should the Ministry of Education and Culture budget be taken into account entirely, partially, or not at all? Uruguay's constitution stipulates that public education is administered by autonomous institutions. There are two such institutions in the present legislation: the National Public Education Administration (ANEP), which looks after preschool, primary, secondary and technical education as well as teacher training, and the University of the Republic, which manages higher education. They have their own, separate budgets, their legal proceedings are not appealable before the Ministry of Education, or any other

Table 1

FINANCING OF EDUCATION
BASIC DATA

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Gross Domestic Product-GDP (millions of new Pesos-1978 constant prices)	34 808	35 469	32 138	30 257	29 816	29 905	31 879	33 454
Total GDP. Indexes: 1980=100	100	101.9	92.3	86.9	85.7	85.9	91.6	96.1
Per Capita GDP. Indexes: 1980=100	100	101.2	91.0	85.0	83.3	82.9	87.8	91.3

Source: Ministry of Economy and Finances of Uruguay.

Table 2

PERCENTAGE OF THE EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE IN THE GDP IN CURRENT PRICES IN THOUSANDS OF N$

Year	Education institutions	M. of Education and Culture (1)	G.D.P.	% of the institutions	% of the ministry	% total
1980	2 136 801.2	443 709.3	92 204	2.3	0.5	2.8
1981	3 074 509.9	683 865.9	122 453	2.5	0.6	3.1
1982	3 616 523.3	742 097.9	128 696	2.8	0.6	3.4
1983	4 329 507.6	952 919.3	185 006	2.3	0.5	2.8
1984	5 967 310.9	1 219 720.4	294 359	2.1	0.4	2.5
1985	11 379 954.7	2 449 404.5	528 152	2.1	0.5	2.6
1986	25 392 840.	5 755 739.	971 734	2.6	0.6	3.2
1987	45 813 361.	10 801 080.	1 700 559	2.7	0.6	3.3

(1) The figures presented in UNESCO's Statistical Yearbook, 1987, as the total public expenditure on education represent the addition of the expenditure of the public education institutions and 48%, some years, and 52%, in other years, of the expenditure of the Ministry of Education and Culture. This Table provides the totals since the share of the Ministry in expenditure on education is impossible to determine. In all probability, it does not represent more than a fifth; in order to be able to assess the financing of public education, the important is therefore the expenditure of the education institutions.

authority, and are only liable to appeals before the Court of Administrative Contentions and before the juridical power in matters of compensation. This means that the legal status of proceedings by either institution is the same as that of proceedings by the Executive. And although the Ministry of Education and Culture does have activities related to education, mainly through its relations with international organizations and foreign governments, it does not formally provide education, which is the responsibility of the two above-mentioned institutions. Moreover, attempts made to determine the education share by analyzing the Ministry budget have failed, because the classification of expenditure applied does not allow it. This is the reason behind the footnote of Table 2.

Another major problem in this respect is private expenditure, to which I shall return later.

A significant analysis of public expenditure on education over the period 1961-1987 (1) enables us to determine that its share in the GDP was at a peak at the end of the sixties. In 1968, the education institutions (ANEP and the University) spent 3.8% of the

(1) Daniel Corbo, Walter Menéndez and Andrés Peri: Trends in Public Expenditure on Education in Uruguay over the Period 1961 to 1987. CELADU, Montevideo, 1988. Unpublished.

Table 3

SHARE OF THE EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE IN THE GDP

Year	CONAE-ANEP	University	Ministry of Education	Total
1980	1.8	0.5	0.5	2.8
1981	2.0	0.5	0.6	3.1
1982	2.2	0.6	0.6	3.4
1983	1.8	0.5	0.5	2.8
1984	1.6	0.5	0.4	2.5
1985	1.6	0.5	0.5	2.6
1986	1.9	0.7	0.6	3.2
1987	2.0	0.7	0.6	3.3

GDP. The seventies witnessed a notable drop, with the education share fluctuating around, 2.5%. The decade of the eighties began with a share of 2.3%, reaching 2.8% in 1982 as a consequence of that year's sharp decline of the GDP seen against the budget of the two education institutions, then relapsed to 2.3% in 1983 and decreased to 2.1% in 1984. This figure remained unchanged in 1985 –first year of the democratic government– increasing to 2.6 in 1986 and to 2.7% in 1987, but it did not reach anything near the high percentages of the past. Within this overall evolution, there are important differences between the educational services provided by ANEP and those which come under the University. The first suffered the strongest variations; in 1965, year of the highest rates, their share in the GDP was 3.2%, falling to exactly half, i.e. 1.6% in 1979, 1984 and 1985. The University, on the other hand, with nearly 0.8% in 1969, never falls below 0.5% and just about recovers its share in 1986 and 1987, while ANEP only reaches 1.9% and 2.0% respectively.

As regards the Ministry of Education which never went beyond 0.2% of the GDP in the sixties, it doubled its share in 1979 and tripled it in 1986 and 1987 reaching 0.6% of the GDP (Table 3).

Thus the GDP share allocated to preschool, primary or basic, secondary and technical education declined strongly over a longer period, and although it did recover somewhat during 1986 and 1987, its recovery has not been as high as in the rest of the education sector. Apart from other consequences, which will be examined later, this policy leads to more concentration of revenues. In Uruguay, and elsewhere, it is State expenditure on primary education which has more distributive effects: With only 7.2% of the total income, the poorest 20% of families on the other hand absorbed some 45% of primary education expenditure, and the poorest half some 80% thereof. Secondary education expenditure also had notable effects, although to a lesser extent than spending on primary education: the poorest 20% absorbed almost 25% thereof. At the other extreme, the richer 20%, which accounted for some 46.3% of family revenues, only received 7.5% of primary education expenditure and 11.8% of expenditure on secondary education (2).

There are no reliable estimates of private expenditure on education, neither as regards private education itself, nor family expenses in public education. The latter is completely free in Uruguay, including university education, but there are of course other expenses which the families have to cover.

However, despite lack of information in this field, it is possible to make some deductions. First of all, the overwhelming role of public expenditure on education, as can be seen from the school enrolment figures presented later. The State does not subsidize private education directly, but the latter is exempted from paying any kind of taxes, contributions, etc. This role played by public expenditure, which has existed for a long time in Uruguay, cannot account for less than 80% of total education expenditure and is probably situated at a higher level.

A second deduction, impossible to prove but plausible, is that in this set-up of overwhelming public spending, the share of private

(2) Hugo Davrieux: The Role of Public Expenditure in Uruguay 1955-1984. CINVE-EBO. Montevideo, 1987. Its conclusions are based on a study by CIESU-CINVE on the distributive effects of public spending on the education sector.

spending must have increased from the seventies onwards. The before mentioned drop in public spending has had a series of effects, among which we should mention the diminution of maintenance and equipment costs in public education. The result has been that parent associations have had to make up for the deficiencies of public spending more than in the past. This phenomenon has a clear and undesirable consequence: it increases the inequality of the services provided by the public system. Because of the proportions it had acquired, a lot of attention has been paid recently to this phenomenon, which obviously has other dimensions apart from those considered here, and analysis covered the stratification of educational services, and the creation of different and unequal teaching circuits inside the very public system (3). Since parent capacity to contribute is very variable, the deficiencies of public spending tend to exacerbate differences between school establishments as regards maintenance and equipment, and this again deepens other disparities.

Table 4 presents the share in expenditure of the different levels of education. We observe the constant growth of the percentage of higher education –as is confirmed by earlier data. At the other levels, the most noticeable change is the increase of expenditure of the Central Governing Board of the National Public Education Administration. i.e. general administration and primary and secondary teacher training. This increase is essentially due to efforts to centralize a series of services (school construction, legal services, etc.) in order to gain efficiency and avoid useless duplication. This centralization was consolidated in 1987 and explains the leap from 2.6% to 6.7% observed, as well as part of the diminution experienced by the other levels. If we keep this fact in mind, expenditure at the secondary level has remained proportionally constant. There is, however, a real decline in the proportion of expenditure for primary education. It is mainly due to the fact that enrolment in common primary education has practically not increased because of the very slow population growth –close to zero in the age groups in question– and also because public preschool enrolment has stagnated in recent years. What does not appear logical is the stagnation of secondary education which, together with university education, has grown most. As we shall see later, these changes, added to financial limitations, have resulted in a considerable decline in expenditure per pupil.

Table 4 also shows the distribution of resources according to purpose of expenditure. Although the corresponding table (Table 2) comprises total educational expenditure, it was preferred to present it separately for ANEP and the University. The reason is the significant difference between the two institutions. In the University, staff salaries never exceed 65%, whereas they never are less than 80% in ANEP. This is mainly due to the disparity in the percentage of functioning costs, which for the University are always double, or more, than in ANEP. This again can be explained by the inclusion in the University budget of the Hospital of Clinics, the biggest in the country. This makes it difficult to calculate educational expenditure. The Hospital is part of the educational system, in that it provides practice for Faculty of Medicine students; but it is also a medical care institution and, as such, should be considered under public health expenditure. Hence, the Hospital share is left out of some estimates of public education expenditure, whereas in others only part of the costs are left out. This is the correct solution, but it is practically impossible to distinguish the educational part from the medical care part, and estimates have to be made. The most commonly adopted supposes that a third of the hospital budget can be attributed to education and the rest to public health. Since the hospital's budget corresponds to approximately 30% of the University budget, this would mean that some 20% of its expenditure should not be considered as public education expenditure. This should be kept in mind, since all the tables in this study present total university expenditure as public education expenditure, due to the difficulties of establishing the proper distinctions.

Another feature in the distribution of expenditure is the very low percentage of investments, particularly in ANEP. The highest percentage in the period considered is 6.9% of the total, and in one year it was less than 4%. The University shows higher percentages, significant some years, but generally low. One of the effects of the financial crisis in the case of ANEP is that the institution has turned into a gigantic (for Uruguayan standards) salary-paying machine. Of the total expenditure of 80%, teacher salaries account for some three

(3) Juan Carlos Tedesco. Elements to Diagnose the Education System in Latin America. Ricardo Nassif, Germán Rama and Juan Carlos Tedesco: The Education System in Latin America. Buenos Aires, Kapelusz, 1984, p. 30 and following; and Tedesco. The Challenge of Education. Quality and Democracy. Buenos Aires. GEL 1987. Moreover, my own study now under publication: Educational Inequality: Problems and Policies.

Table 4

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR (1)

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Total Public expenditure on education (in thousands of new pesos)	2 136 801	3 074 510	3 616 523	4 329 507	5 967 311	11 379 954	25 392 840	45 813 361
As % of GDP	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.6	2.7
As % of total government expenditure.	13.5	13.6	10.2	11.6	11.0	10.6	13.1	13.3
1. Total Current education expenditure	2 034 629	2 890 907	3 398 781	4 152 353	5 411 586	10 307 834	23 534 918	42 764 024
a) Distribution according to purpose								
A.N.E.P.								
Emoluments	82.1	79.9	80.2	82.0	86.2	85.3	80.3	80.4
Functioning	13.6	14.3	12.9	13.5	10.2	9.0	13.6	12.8
Investments	4.3	5.8	6.9	4.5	3.6	5.7	6.1	6.8
UNIVERSITY								
Emoluments	64.3	60.7	65.3	64.3	56.3	58.2	62.1	61.9
Functioning	26.7	30.0	29.2	31.3	22.1	26.1	28.5	29.8
Investments	9.0	9.3	5.5	4.4	21.6	15.7	9.4	8.3
b) Distribution of public expenditure by level of education								
Basic and pre-basic education (includes adults)	45.8	43.4	44.2	42.5	42.4	40.7	38.9	37.6
Total secondary education	32.0	32.7	33.1	33.4	32.2	31.8	30.6	29.2
General	19.6	20.3	20.8	20.8	20.0	19.6	19.0	18.1
Technical-Vocational	12.4	12.4	12.3	12.6	12.2	12.2	11.6	11.1
General administration of above levels and teacher training	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.2	2.4	2.6	6.7
Higher education	19.9	21.8	20.4	21.6	23.2	25.1	27.9	26.5
2. Total Capital public expenditure on Education	102 172	183 602	217 742	177 154	555 724	1 072 120	1 857 922	3 049 337
a) Investments	102 172	183 602	217 742	177 154	555 724	1 072 120	1 857 922	3 049 337
b) Interests on debt	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

(1) Calculated on total expenditure of the education institutions, without including any of the expenditure of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

quarters and salaries for administrative staff for one fourth. The proportion of teacher salaries is a little less in the case of the University.

The statistics on educational expenditure published by international and national organizations never present data on external financing, whether loans of donations. The main reason is that contributions of this kind have never been very significant in Uruguay. Over the years, sporadic technical cooperation missions have contributed to studies on the state of the education system. They have generally worked at the Ministry of Education level and do not appear in the budgets of the education institutions.

The same is the case with technical cooperation teams, which only rarely have

worked in the education institutions themselves. Their contribution appears in the expenditure of the Planning and Budget Office and has not been significant either.

Finally, the operations involving utilization of external resources are recorded in the budgets of the education institutions. For the total budget for 1985-1990, the ANEP part is US$ 5.500.000 and US$ 3 000 000 for the University. Spending of external input appears in the distribution of the education institutions, recorded in new Uruguayan pesos. Therefore, although the sums are expressed in dollars, because they have a special purpose, they are internal resources.

Main trends of the educational system in the period 1980-1987

Priorities

It would be difficult to identify changes in the priorities of educational policies resulting directly from acuter financial scarcity. The crisis has mainly resulted in a significant decline of staff remunerations, with the exceptions which have occurred under the democratic regime, and which we shall examine later.

The earlier mentioned decline of the education share in the GDP obeys a number of factors. The percentage of government expenditure in the GDP has not changed much and can therefore not be considered one of them. It represented 24.9% in 1974 and 25.9% ten years later, although the latter figure does not include the socalled 'parafiscal' deficit, which accounts for 4.9%. The fundamental change comes from the increasing weight of interests paid on external debt, of transfers to social security and defense and security costs. In 1987, the Ministry of National Defense and the Ministry of the Interior absorb nearly a fifth of central government expenditure: 19.1% to be exact, transfers to the social security sector 16.9% and the interests on the debt account for 8%. The three posts together thus absorb 44% of the whole budget. In the past, debt interests were not important, the transfers to social security were much less, and so were defense and security costs. The distribution of the government budget in the period 1980-1987 is presented in Table 5.

It should be mentioned that a significant change has occurred since 1985, the year of the return of democracy. In 1984, the Ministries of Defense and the Interior absorbed 23.7% of the budget as against 19.1% in 1987, and the education institutions rose from 11.0% to 13.3% in the same period. But, the budget is very rigid, and it is not realistic, at least not in the near future, to hope for major increases of the education sector share in the GDP to take us back to the levels prevailing at the end of the sixties.

During the socalled "civilian-military process", the resources of the education sector increased less than the GDP when the latter rose and diminished more than a decreasing GDP. This led mainly to lowering salaries. However, no new policies were worked out to bring about changes or structural reforms. The regime perceived the education system as one dominated by left-wing teachers, and it went to a great deal of trouble to eliminate them from the payroll. Thus, some 20% of primary school teachers, a little more than 10% of secondary school teachers and some technical education teachers were dismissed for political or trade union, reasons; with the new laws worked out by the democratic authorities, they were later reinstored in their functions.

Table 6 shows the evolution of resources in real terms and illustrates the considerations mentioned earlier.

Table 6 provides the proportion of the

Table 5

PERCENTAGE OF THE EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE IN THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT BUDGET

Year	CONAE-ANEP	University	Ministry of Education	Total
1980	10.6	2.9	2.8	16.3
1981	10.6	3.0	3.0	16.6
1982	8.1	2.1	2.1	13.3
1983	8.7	2.3	3.5	14.5
1984	8.5	2.5	2.2	13.2
1985	8.0	2.6	2.3	12.9
1986	9.4	3.7	3.0	16.1
1987	9.8	3.5	3.2	16.5

Table 6

DISTRIBUTION AMONG THE EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE IN 1980 REAL VALUES INDEX 100 (1980) IN THOUSANDS OF N$

Year	CONAE-ANEP	University	Total institutions	Ministry Ed. and Cult	Total
1980	1 680 905.3 (100)	455 895. 9 (100)	2 136 801. 2 (100)	443 709. 3 (100)	2 580 510.5 (100)
1981	1 793 363.3 (106.7)	500 221. 1 (109.7)	2 293 584. 4 (107.3)	510 164. 0 (115)	2 803 748.4 (108.7)
1982	1 804 045.3 (107.3)	463 514.8 (101.7)	2 267 560.1 (106.1)	465 295.4 (104.9)	2 732 855.5 (105.9)
1983	1 427 784.3 (84.9)	391 568.8 (85.9)	2 819 353.5 (85.1)	400 416.7 (90.2)	2 219 770.2 (86.0)
1984	1 239 150.4 (73.7)	374 637.3 (82.2)	1 613 787.6 (75.5)	329 822.4 (74.3)	1 943 610.0 (75.3)
1985	1 339 363.3 (79.7)	447 722.0 (98.2)	1 787 085.3 (83.6)	384 649.6 (86.7)	2 171 734.9 (84.2)
1986	1 629 224.0 (96.9)	631 031.8 (138.4)	2 260 255.8 (105.8)	512 326.9 (115.5)	2 772 882.7 (107.5)
1987	1 832 465.8 (109.0)	660 246.0 (144.8)	2 492 711.8 (116.7)	587 688.4 (132.4)	3 080 400.2 (119.4)

different government by purpose, unfortuna tely only up to 1984. The variations are therefore the ones indicated in the earlier analysis.

It may be of interest to add some thoughts on the possible future of public spending on education. The limiting factor here, and in nearly all the countries in the region, is the weight of the interests on external debt. They represented 8% of the GDP in 1984, i.e. nearly four times more than the education share in public expenditure that year. They decreased a little in 1987, but were still situated over 7%, i.e. nearly three times more than the education institutions. Even hoping optimistically that the weight of external debt will diminish in relation to the GDP, it will continue to be a serious limitation.

There is another problem which, contrary to the former, is particular for Uruguay, and that is social security. It absorbs more of the GDP than external debt interests and national defense expenditure together. The reason is to be found in the notable aging of the Uruguayan population, which approaches the rate in developed countries (4). In the 1963 census, the population over 60 years of age represented 11.6% of the population, in 1975 14.3% and in 1985 15.7%. The growth of the population of 65 yeas is even higher. From 7.6% in 1963 and 9.8% in 1975, it reached 11.1% in 1985, as a consequence of the aging of the "old" population, if I may express it so. The total population of the country grew by only 5.4% between 1975 and 1985, the 60-64 age group by 7.5%, the 65-69 age group by 9.5%, the 70-74 age group by 18.9%, the 75-79 age group by 24.1%, the 80-84 age group by 39.8% and the age group over 85 years by 32.4%.

This aging, added to a very flexible retirement system, has gradually augmented social security expenses, and the burden thereof falls on the active population. In 1955, there were 4.3 active for each passive, in 1983 only 1.5, and the present rate is about 1.3. It is therefore easy to understand that a considerable part of the government budget –close to 20%– is made up of transfers to social security. A series of factors will intervene in the near future, some of them contradictory, which we cannot analyze here. In any case, the cost of social security cannot be expected to diminish, and it is more realistic to think that it will increase. Above all, if we take into account the growing importance of the "old" seen from an electoral point of view and the concern felt by political parties and the population in general for a decent treatment of retired people and pensioners. I shall here quote some considerations from the article mentioned in foot note 4. "This leads us to understand the reasons why the retirement problem remains in the centre of debate in political parties.

(4) Aldo E. Solari. The Aging of the Uruguayan Population Thirty Years Later. In CLAEN Journals, No. 43, 1987.

This debate allows us to state an interesting fact which paradoxically is an omission. Much has been said, and continues to be said, to the effect that the enormous increase of military and police spending before and during the socalled "civilian-military process", together with the payment of interests on external debt, imposed insuperable limits on the desire all political parties felt to considerably increase funds for education and health, which were reduced so drastically during that period. This is clear. But it is also clear, although nobody says so, that there is a limit to social security spending –which represents more than double the defense-police expenses, to which we have to add external debt interests.

At the most, the Executive sustains that in calculating the percentage of education and health in the budget, the interests on external debt and the transfers to social security should be deducted from the total, especially when comparisons are made with the past, when these posts either did not exist, or were not significant.

In any case, the omission tells us a great deal about the collective state of mind in this matter. External debt and military spending can (and should) be made responsible for the low spending on education and health; but the same cannot be said about the transfers to social security, despite the fact that they are of the same magnitude. In other words, the omission is yet another proof that the right of retired people to receive reasonable remunerations is perceived as justice by society" (5).

These considerations enable us to understand that we should not expect modifications leading to a significant increase in spending on education. Obviously, if the same percentage of the GDP is maintained, education spending will grow if the GDP does. But it would only be growth of little significance, when compared to the serious financial crisis the system is going through, and would not bring the sector back to the share it had in the past. The democratic government has cut down on security and defense costs and increased spending on education notably. New cuts in defense and security are of course possible, but could not be significant. A change of priorities would probably have more impact, reducing the share of the Ministry of Education and Culture in the GDP and transferring it to the education institutions. It would then be possible, in a relatively short time, to raise their resources to 3% or more of the GDP; it would take much longer, however, to reach the level they presented at the end of the sixties.

We cannot therefore ignore the importance of a more rational and efficient use of available resources. We cannot analyze this theme here, since it is not really part of the objectives of this meeting. But it is worthwhile mentioning some points concerning a better use of resources. Two points stand out in the case of primary education. Firstly, the number of socalled "indirect" teaching posts (inspectors, directors, secretary-teachers, etc.) is far too high. About one third of all the teaching staff is found in this category, which moreover is the most costly. Secondly, the rural school. The country runs more than 1.300 rural schools with more than 2 000 teachers for an enrolment of less than 35 000, in constant diminution. There are many schools with less than 10 pupils, and quite a number with less than 5 pupils. Obviously, both problem can only be solved over a longer period through a systematic policy to rationalize indirect teaching costs and to create new ways of providing education for the rural population. It goes without saying that such a policy would meet serious difficulties and opposition.

Similar considerations could be made about the Technical-Vocational Education Board –formerly the University of Labour of Uruguay– which maintains a considerable number of courses, which have little, or nothing, to do with development needs.

In a society where the influence of teacher unions is very strong, such reforms cause intense resistance, and there is not much reason to be optimistic about a better use of the insufficient resources devoted to the education system.

The Preprimary Level

(Table 7). I shall not go into the well-known considerations about the importance of this level and the role it plays in preparing the child for a successful school life later. Available figures indicate considerable growth of public enrolment from 1980 to 1983 and then total stagnation. On the other hand, enrolment in private education increased by almost 50% between 1983 and 1987. Behind this is a considerable increase of social demand for preschool education. If the public sector does not satisfy this demand, people turn to the private sector, which then grows, although with uneven degrees of quality and of expenses for the families. The social demand also grows, because women work a great deal more. Facing the general decline of salaries, one of the solutions to maintain income levels, or see them decrease less, has

(5) Aldo E. Solari. Ibidem pp. 19-20

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Table 7

QUANTITATIVE EVOLUTION OF PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Public and private sector								
Enrolment	42 444	44 415	49 539	53 999	54 454	55 092	55 524	58 915
Teaching staff	...	...	...	...	1 784	2 012	...	...
Establishments	779	722	850	928	890	968	978	1 141
Public sector								
Enrolment	31 791	33 714	38 621	41 358	41 073	40 979	40 978	41 240
Teaching staff	1 001	...	1 026	...	...	...	...	...
Establishments	554	564	580	...	651	729	744	883
Private sector								
Enrolment	10 653	10 701	10 918	12 641	13 381	14 113	14 546	17 675
Establishments	225	218	270	...	239	239	234	258

been to increase the number of family members who work. In relatively few years, female employment rose from 29 to 45%, thus creating the need for childcare during the parents' working hours. Compared to other countries, the nursery school network is insufficient, and families turn to preschool institutions. Nearly 30% of enrolment at this level is in the private system, since the public system is insufficient.

These figures are to some extent misleading. There is a great number of private establishments, generally small, for children at the preschool age, which are more of the nursery –or day-care centre– type than educational, and even when they do have an educational function, it is insufficient because the staff lacks proper training. That is why comparisons should only be made between official enrolment and private enrolment in qualified, or authorized, centres. However, all this proves that a majority of the population wants preschool services, and that the demand cannot be satisfied because of insufficient availability of public services.

Thus, only 38% of the 3-5 age group of the population is catered for.

In order to encourage extension of preschool education, the National Public Education Administration set up a strategy to generalize education from the age of 5, a relatively accessible goal in a short period of time, without prejudice to the growth for the other age groups.

1987		
Population 3-5 years	Preschool Enrolment 3-5 years	Percentage
153 700	58 879	38.3

Source: Population: General Direction of Statistics and Census - IVth General Population Census.
Enrolment: Primary Education Council - Department of Educational Research and Planning.

As can be seen from the following table, the population of 5 years attending preschool education is as high as 75%.

Consequently, only 13 000 children of 5 years are left out; the enrolment figure in the table does not include the numerous private, unauthorized nurseries and day-care centres in Montevideo and other cities in the country.

The goal would be to cover 100% of the population of 5 years of age in a period of two years.

It is not enough to reach that goal, however; it remains to be seen in what way. Socalled 'assistance' nursery schools have to be created in the zones, where they are most

1987			
Population 5 years	Preschool Enrolment 5 years	Difference	Percentage
53 200	39 670	13 530	74.5

needed, in order to provide not only good preschool education, but also adequate feeding and health care. The public perceives, generally rightly, that the available preschool education suffers from considerable inequality, that some establishments are much better than others because of the quality of the teaching staff, the services they offer, etc. To mention an example, to enrol children in certain establishments, queues form the day before enrolment starts, and all kinds of influence is used to avoid having to queue. This problem has to be tackled, and efforts have to be made to open the best establishments to those sectors of the population who most need them.

Primary Education

(See table 8). The 1985 census provides a useful approximation of the theme of school coverage at the different levels. Generally speaking, the situation of primary education appears to be relatively satisfactory. Of 325 000 children in the 6-11 age group, 306 700 attend primary education, i.e. 94.4%. Of the 10 600 who never attended, 8 800 are 6 years old, and the figures for older children show that at least 8 000 will attend, which increases the percentage to 96.8%. We could also calculate differently by taking the population of 7-12 years of age, in order to avoid the effect of those who did not start

Table 8

QUANTITATIVE EVOLUTION OF BASIC EDUCATION

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Public and private sectors								
Enrolment	331 247	335 600	343 957	350 078	350 390	356 002	352 459	354 177
Gross enrolment Ratio (%)	106	...	...	109	108	110	108	107
Teaching staff	15 676	15 676	16 821	17 036	15 027	16 068	16 212	16 568
Number of pupils per teacher	21	21	20	21	23	22	22	21
Establishments	2 298	2 294	2 291	2 295	2 321	2 367	2 371	2 382
Number of pupils per school	144	146	149	153	151	151	149	149
Public sector								
Enrolment	277 018	280 325	288 469	298 618	300 098	310 239	303 232	300 382
Teaching staff	13 446	13 446	14 563	...	12 743	13 227	13 482	13 841
Number of pupils per teacher	21	21	20	...	24	23	22	22
Establishments	2 065	2 051	2 049	...	2 079	2 128	2 130	2 142
Number of pupils per school	134	137	141	...	144	142	142	140
Private sector								
Enrolment	54 229	56 275	55 488	51 460	50 292	54 763	49 227	53 795
Teaching staff	2 230	2 230	2 268	...	2 284	2 841	2 730	2 727
Number of pupils per teacher	24	25	24	...	22	19	18	20
Establishments	243	243	242	...	242	239	241	240
Number of pupils per school	223	232	229	...	208	229	204	224

Source: Statistical Yearbook, Uruguay

primary education at 6, although this would result in including those of 12 years, who completed school and will not continue to study. In that case, the percentage would be 96.3%. If we admit the fact that there is a percentage of children, who are totally incapable of joining the education system, the figures indicate that practically all of the population attend school for six years. In other words, all children attend primary education for a sufficient period, and some attend for a longer period. However, not all complete primary education. The rate is situated around 80%.

Enrolment in common primary education is virtually stagnating. Practically all the population in the age group concerned is enrolled and is not increasing, nor is it expected to do so in the near future. At first sight, since social demand remains unchanged, this should enable the system to perform better. However, the problem is much more complex. Parallel with the very slow population growth observed between the 1963 and 1985 census, due to low birth rates and international emigration, we note a territorial mobility of some importance.

A first variable to approach the problem is to distinguish between urban and rural enrolment. The rural population is in constant diminution, and so is enrolment in rural schools. In 1982, enrolment totalled 40 683 pupils, in 1987 only 36 473, a diminution of more than 10% in hardly five years. There were 45 300 rural children in the age group 6-11 in the 1985 census, and rural enrolment in that year was 38 470 pupils, which gives us an attendance percentage much lower than the national one. Children in the 6-11 age group

Table 9

POPULATION OF 6 YEARS AND MORE BY REGULAR SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, BY BIG AREAS, SEX AND AGE GROUPS (IN THOUSANDS)

Big areas sex and	Population of 6 years and more by regular school attendance				
Age groups	Total	Attend	Attended	Never attended	Unknown
Total country					
Total	2 630.7	605.7	1 882.1	128.9	13.9
06-11	325.0	306.7	5.5	10.6	2.3
06	53.5	43.1	.4	8.8	1.2
07	54.6	52.8	.8	.7	.3
08	56.1	54.7	.8	.3	.3
09	55.2	53.8	1.0	.3	.2
10	54.2	52.6	1.2	.2	.2
11	51.4	49.7	1.4	.2	.1
12-17	288.6	203.5	82.3	1.4	1.3
12	51.2	47.3	3.0	.2	.7
13	47.6	41.1	6.1	.2	.1
14	49.0	36.9	11.8	.3	.1
15	47.3	30.7	16.3	.2	.1
16	48.4	26.4	21.5	.3	.2
17	45.1	21.1	23.7	.2	.1
18-24	314.5	66.4	244.2	3.0	.9
18	44.2	15.9	27.9	.4	.1
19	43.1	12.8	30.0	.3	.1
20	44.7	9.9	34.3	.4	.1
21	44.9	9.0	35.4	.4	.1
22	45.8	7.4	37.8	.4	.2
23	46.2	6.2	39.5	.5	.1
24	45.5	5.4	39.5	.5	.1
25-29	216.4	14.4	198.6	2.7	.7
30-39	370.8	7.6	354.2	7.5	1.5
40 and more	1 115.4	7.1	997.4	103.7	7.2

were 279 700 and urban enrolment 271 841, i.e. 97.2%. However, this figure excludes the 11 812 pupils who that year enrolled in special education, which is entirely urban. If we add this figure to the former, the result exceeds the total urban population of the age group. The explanation is that a certain number of children from rural zones attend urban schools.

The depopulation of rural areas and the enrolment decline pose problems, which are not easy to solve. The country has 1 350 rural schools, which gives us the very low average of 27 pupils per school. Within this average, there are huge differences from one department to another: from the average of 46 pupils per school in Canelones to the average of 13 per school in Flores. There are 644 rural schools –about half of the total number– with an average of less than 24 pupils. With 421 children enrolled in the more than 30 rural schools in Flores, we find examples of schools with less than 10. and sometimes less than 5 pupils. These cannot really be called schools, but rather a form of individual teaching financed by public funds. If we add that there are more than 2 300 rural teachers, we get a notion of the very low ratio of pupils per teacher.

In contrast with this depopulation of rural schools, there is overpopulation of many public urban schools. Some is due to insufficient availability of education, but more can be explained by the above-mentioned phenomenon of territorial mobility of the population. Between the 1963 census and the one in 1975, only one department –Lavalleja– saw its population diminish in absolute figures. Between the 1975 census and the one in 1985, the population continued diminishing not only in Lavalleja, but also in six other departments: Durazno, Flores, Florida, Rio Negro, Soriano and Tacuarembó. On the other hand, departments like Canelones and Rivera saw their population grow rapidly. To this should be added the population mobility inside a same city. Montevideo is a typical case in this respect. Some zones have experienced a notable population decrease, other have remained unchanged, and a third group registered considerable increase. Now, the geographical distribution of schools is obviously very rigid and based more on past distribution of the population than on today's distribution. Consequently, while the number of pupils per teacher in urban schools is very acceptable when considered as a whole, it veils the fact that there are both overpopulated and underpopulated classes in the same city.

Realistic measures should be adopted to improve the teaching-learning process; the teacher-pupil ratio should be improved in overpopulated groups, and new schools established where schools function in shifts with more than 500 pupils.

Primary education enrolment in 1987 in public urban schools increased to 271 113, and there were 9 404 class groups. Consequently, the average number of pupils per class was 29 in urban schools. This average can be considered optimal in primary education.

However, the average does not reflect reality in a considerable number of schools situated in zones with high population density, and enrolment is not distributed homogeneously among the schools. There are significant disparities from one zone to the other and from one school to the other.

In 1987, 543 class groups in urban schools had 41 or more pupils; of these, 275 were situated in Montevideo and 268 in other cities. A study of the composition of these 543 groups gives us an average of 45 pupils per class. This is far beyond the ideal number of pupils per class, and it is indispensable to reduce it to reach the target set of 35 pupils per class.

Nearly a fifth of the population starting primary school does not complete it, due –above all– to high repetition rates. In 1986, the overall percentage was 11.38%. There seems to be a tendency towards a slight diminution of the rate in recent years. There is of course great disparity within this general average. The average in the first grade is 21.58% and in the last grade 4.18%; thus, more than a fifth of the pupils repeat the first grade; in former years, this proportion was close to a fourth. If we consider that some 13% repeat the second year, and that many of them already had repeated the first year, we can conclude that at least one out of every ten pupils takes four years to complete the first two grades.

Although significant, these differences between grades are not as important as the differences between schools. I shall take just two example: Montevideo and Paysandú. In the first department, in 1986, more than a third –44– of the 129 existing primary schools had repetition rates in the first grade of 25 to 35%, and 24 schools had rates between 35 and 54%. That means that more than half of the schools had rates over 25%. With the background of the overall repetition rate of 13% for the second grade, there are 11 schools, nearly 10% of all, with an average of 25 to 34%. In Paysandú, of 30 urban schools, 9 had rates between 25 and 34% and 6 between 35 and 54%, which means that exactly half had rates over 25%. In the second grade, only one school had rates between 25 and 34%, but two had rates over 35%, that is again 10%.

The schools with high repetition rates are situated in the economically and socially poorest zones of the two cities.

The rates reveal a series of phenomena: on the one hand, the serious difficulties which some social groups experience when faced with the requirements of the school environment. On the other hand, a phenomenon with serious consequences: the high number of overaged pupils for their grade. Hence, high repetition rates and dropout, taken not in the sense that the pupils attend school less than six years, but that they leave school without having completed the six-year programme foreseen.

Repetition is thus the central problem of our school and in particular of the public school.

High repetition is linked with the very short school schedule, although the link is not sufficiently clear due to lack of research in that field. Uruguay succeeded gradually in generalizing primary education by establishing double shifts in public schools and a schedule reduced to 720 hours per annum, i.e. only four hours per day what with the many legal holidays and long vacations. None of this can be attributed to scarcity of resources, since this was before scarcity occurred; in fact, at the time when the share of the education institutions in the GDP was at its peak. Furthermore, and this may seem a paradox, in 1988 –in the midst of the financial crisis– resources were found to test a selective extension of the school schedule by four supplementary hours of class per week in specific schools. This gives us a 20% increase of the school schedule applied in a number fluctuating between a fourth and a fifth of all public urban school classes. They were selected because of their high repetition rates in the preceeding years. As could be expected, these classes were selected among the poorest social spheres. Spectacular results should not be expected, since the problem of repetition also stems from many other factors, which have nothing to do with the work schedule in schools; however, with nearly all the population attending school for the time needed to complete it, the role of endogenous factors takes on more importance. And, as I have already indicated, it is indispensable to gradually diminish the disparities among public school establishments –disparities which may even have increased with the more important contribution by parents and local communities.

Although fluctuating considerably, the participation of the private sector at this level remains relatively modest. Naturally, the general decline of income mentioned before favours more participation by the public sector and a consequent diminution of the private one. We should not forget, however, that there are a small, but significant, number of free private schools, generally run by religious communities, which are not, and could not be, affected by this phenomenon.

In this matter, there are of course important variables, which are not financial. A summary, but not inexact, vision over a longer term shows that the public system has constantly been losing social prestige, even before the financial crisis, which then stepped it up. But the crisis can in no way be seen as the main factor. Without making a value judgment, it is a fact that many middle-class parents make huge economic sacrifices to send their children to private schools. It also leads them to form pressure groups vis-à-vis the government, which approves the fees private schools can charge. The groups are not very relevant; the role of the government is essentially one of ratifying the fees, and there is, on the other hand, evident difficulties in deciding to send one's children to a private school because it offers better quality, or to pay lower fees. We see a complex stratification of private paying establishments with their differential quotas, which I shall not examine here.

Intermediate (Secondary) General and Technical Education

(See Tables 10 and 11). The intermediate level in Uruguay considered as a whole covers secondary and technical education. However, considering them together may create confusion; although all enrolment in secondary education corresponds to the intermediate level, that is not the case with technical education enrolment. To illustrate this, we could take the figure quoted in table 5, which included 55 359 pupils of public technical education, out of whom it is impossible to determine how many belong to the intermediate level. A third of this enrolment is in vocational training, where there is a high percentage of adults. All in all, however, the great majority belongs to this level.

Whereas primary school enrolment expanded most during the forties and fifties, expansion of intermediate school enrolment occurred mainly in the sixties. In 1961, there were 80 000 pupils, and in 1970 there were 145 000 (round figures). While the population of the age group concerned grew by some 10% in that lapse of time, enrolment increased by more than 80%. Growth continued in the beginning of the seventies, and 1973 and 1974 saw an enrolment of 152 000. It started to lessen, until it reached its lowest at 139 000 in 1980, then started to recover in 1981 and

Table 10

QUANTITATIVE EVOLUTION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Public sector and private								
Enrolment	125 438	124 003	125 366	144 227	152 304	159 514	169 932	175 710
Establishments	258	263	263	...	268	267	268	276
Public sector								
Enrolment	97 070	94 369	97 273	117 443	126 328	132 184	141 285	145 083
Establishments	146	147	149	...	152	151	153	158
Private sector								
Enrolment	28 368	29 634	28 093	26 784	25 976	27 330	28 647	30 627
Establishments	112	116	114	...	116	116	115	118

Table 11

1. QUANTITATIVE EVOLUTION OF OFFICIAL INTERMEDIATE-TECHNICAL EDUCATION

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Enrolment	42 284	46 012	51 697	55 259	55 359	53 987	54 727	52 766
Establishments	86	87	...	...	...	94	94	94

2. TOTAL SECONDARY AND TECHNICAL

Enrolment	167 722	170 015	177 063	199 486	207 663	213 501	224 659	228 476
Gross enrolment ratio				67.5%	70.0%	71.4%	73.2%	73.5%

increased rapidly from 1985 onwards to reach the number of 196 000 in 1987 (all data for public education). What is striking here is the diminution, which was not compensated by higher enrolment in the private sector. It mainly affected public secondary education, and not technical education which hardly decreased at all. How can this be explained?

All opinions concur on the role of international emigration. The country lost approximately 10% of its total population during those years. A high percentage of emigrants were of an age to have children in secondary school. There has been, and still is, a lot of discussion to find out whether emigration alone can explain the phenomenon, but we shall not go into it here. However, other factors –mainly the decline in revenues –must have counted as well. Whatever be the case, the gross enrolment ratio, with the increase seen over the last years, is over 70%, which implies that nearly all those who complete primary school continue some kind of secondary studies.

This global vision is based on rather rough data. They cover very different educational branches and lack uniformity. They include private enrolment in traditional public education but say nothing about the private sector in technical education, for the simple reason that no data are available.

It is therefore necessary to distinguish between secondary education in the traditional sense and technical education. Secondary education curricula cover a span of six years which, in theory, provides for the 12-17 age group. Table 9 permits an approach to the question of coverage. In 1985, out of the 288 600 in the 12 to 17 age group, 203 500 –70.5%– attended some educational establishment –a very high figure. However, it should be observed that the percentages spread from the 92.4% who attended school at the age of 12, to the 46.5% who attended at the age of 17; this means that the figure is considerably increased by the important percentage of children of 12, who still attended primary education. Another significant data is enrolment, which in 1986 reached 169 482, of whom 140 835 in public education and 28 647 in authorized private education, i.e. 16.9% of total enrolment. Adding the basic cycle of the University of Labour of Uruguay (UTU), we obtain a figure of more than 200 000 enrolled, that is a figure close to the census one, but in which should be included a considerable percentage of people over 17 years of age. There are discrepancies in the real coverage of ove-

rall intermediate education, but it does appear to be around 60% of the population of age to attend.

This enrolment grows slowly: around 3% per year, but its growth is in any case higher than the total population growth. Around 60% of the enrolment is in the basic cycle and 40% in the three last years. The percentage in the basic cycle is high. In 1985, enrolment of children of 13, 14 and 15 numbered 75 812 out of 143 900 in the total population of the age group concerned, i.e. 52.7%. When we add those attending the UTU basic cycle, the result is some 70%.

The technical education provided at one time by the University of Labour of Uruguay –a name still in use, although it does not officially exist any more– had stagnating enrolment when, during the military regime, a basic intermediate cycle of three years, like the secondary education cycle, was created but with vocational training characteristics.

The system of two kinds of basic cycles was deliberately created to cater for "a number of students who, for vocational or economic reasons wish, or need, to be trained for a job at an early age. Vocational training is not the objective of secondary education; acquiring general culture is not a specific objective of the UTU. The creation of the UTU basic cycle is therefore considered an acceptable solution for the above-mentioned pupils, providing them with different manual subjects, comprising at least 10 hours weekly and adequate curricula to reach the said objective" (6).

Two aspects are of interest in the wording of the above official text: 1) Although the creation of the UTU basic cycle was explicitly aimed at providing part of the pupils with vocational training from an early age, it also lessened the value of the basic cycle, which is to provide solid general education; 2) Despite the explicit recognition that imparting general culture is not the specific responsibility of the Vocational Technical Education Board, just as vocational training is not the responsibility of secondary education, the above Board is finally imposed a basic cycle of general culture, but which includes job training subjects (workshops).

The Board had never provided general cultural education, nor did it have qualified teachers at its disposal; the effort needed to provide such education took away from its specific function in the technical field.

(6) Vocational Technical Education Board. Basic Secondary and Higher Education Board. Educational Reform. 1976. Ed. Department of Information and Culture. Mimeographed. December 1975, page 9.

The premature vocational training which this cycle is meant to provide in fact results in prejudice to the pupil in that it, at an early age, limits his prospects and any further evolution. On the one hand, it prevents the pupil from developing his capacity to search and explore and, on the other, it goes against the trends in today's labour world, which is exposed to rapid changes in specializations and techniques and in job profiles. Moreover, the pupil, who has to choose a training section when he starts this basic cycle, has no realistic idea of concrete work prospects, as he probably would have if he could choose much later.

Furthermore, the fact that some 94% of the UTU pupils are concentrated in 5 out of the 14 vocational sections offered (mechanics, electricity, cutting and sewing, carpentry and cooking) indicates that the scale of possibilities not only does not fit in with social demand, but that labour is being trained in branches which the country does not need.

The vocational training supposed to be provided through workshops (10 hours weekly) and technology (1 hour weekly) turns out to be of low quality, because it is based on empirical learning, which has little to do with real technical education.

The current authorities have set up a single basic cycle administered by secondary education, which gradually is to replace vocational technical education.

Some 17% of total secondary education enrolment is in the private sector. There are no data on enrolment in technical education in the private sector. The public sector is predominant at the intermediate level as well, and there is no direct financial contribution from the State to private institutions, although the latter are exempted from paying taxes, just as they are in primary education.

The observations made in the case of primary education on parents' contributions to financing are valid here as well, just as the effects of the crisis are the same.

Public financing comes from general central government revenues; and whatever small contributions may come from departmental authorities go mainly to investments.

Nothing has been done, or even attempted, in Uruguay to limit enrolment, or growth thereof, as a consequence of the financing crisis. Constitutionally, intermediate education is free, just like primary, and entrance requirements and evaluation have not changed, except for some minor points in regard to the latter and not related with the financial problem.

Apart from the lowering of staff salaries, the main consequence of the crisis is the excessive use of school buildings. In cities, and particularly in Montevideo, three shifts in a

same classroom are common: two day-and one ovening shift; and although the teacher-pupil ratio is generally satisfactory, there are a great number of over populated classes.

Government control over school fees in private institutions is exactly the same as in primary education and suffer from the same limitations.

There is practically no income through fees covered for services rendered, nor have there been significant technological innovations.

The Ministry of Education currently runs a scholarship system of some 3 million dollars per year.

Higher Education

(See table 12). Uruguay's higher university education is particular in that it, from its very start and until 1984, was exclusively public. At the end of the military regime, the Catholic University Dámasa Antonio Larrañaga was created on the basis of an already existing institute. But its enrolment remains very low, as compared with the one and only official university (this again is exceptional in the world).

There is a sizeable problem in determining exact enrolment in the official university, due to exceptional study flexibility, to students abandoning studies for years and then taking them up again, and to other causes, which we cannot enumerate here. University enrolment was 36 298 in 1980 and 91 580 in 1986, nearly three times more. Table 13 provides round figures, since any attempt at exactitude in this field is vain; however, we do see a great diminution between the 1986 and 1987 enrolment figures. There are even less students in 1987 than in 1985, which goes against all observations. The reliable figure is the 1987 one, since it coincides with the student census made that year. In order to be able to present themselves at an examination, students have to produce a census certificate, and to do so they have to prove that they passed an examination –successfully or not– in the year prior to the census. This gives us a very ample scope, and a student who passed an examination the year before and intends to continue studying is considered as enrolled. In spite of this, the enrolment figure resulting from the census is much lower than in years with no census, inasmuch as to those enrolled in prior years were added the new enrolments without weeding out the first. Thus, the coverage of the system is increasing significantly, but it is impossible to determine to what extent. In effect, if we examine comparable enrolment figures, we find that between the university census in 1968 and the one in 1987, enrolment grew from 18 000 to 61 000, which implies a multiplication by 3.4, i.e. a 340% growth, while the population grew only by 12.9% between the 1963 and 1985 census. Current enrolment covers some 20% of the 18-24 age group.

Enrolment in the one and only private university is small, and the nature of the university differs from the public university in that it covers short study sections, whereas the longer study sections predominate in the public university.

The financing system is totally different. The public university is financed by the State budget, and those are the figures used in this study. The public university is free for the students, who pay no matriculation, no fees, no duties on diplomas, etc. There exist no taxes intended directly for educational financing, nor property income except the rents for property belonging to the university.

National and foreign donations, if at all, amount to very little when seen against the university budget, and the same is the case with income from services rendered and contributions from departmental goverments.

Naturally, in the private university the fees paid by the students constitute an important part of financing, and so do donations.

There is no system of State university cre-

Table 12

QUANTITATIVE EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Higher university								
Enrolment	36 298	34 000	36 000	49 600	52 000	64 000	78 000	61 000
Academic Staff	3 847	...	...	4 349	4 537	...	5 238	...

dit, since studies are entirely free. But there is an important system of non-reimbursable scholarships and grants to low-income students financed by university resources.

In Uruguay, there are no "mechanisms to limit excessive demand for university education". Anyone having completed the two cycles of secondary education is entitled to enter the State university without and kind of entrance examination, or limitation of numbers. During a short period under the military regime, quotas and entrance examinations were established. It was one of the measures which met most resistance, and one of the few which gave rise to public protests during the military regime, which in fact had to abolish it.

At the university level, as at the other levels, direct State financing goes to the State university alone. The private one pays no taxes, dues or contributions, but does not receive any public support.

It is unfortunately impossible to determine how resources are distributed for teaching, research and extension activities. The first are however overwhelming, as always. The financial crisis, the huge growth of enrolment and the notable diminution of the cost per student have resulted in limiting funds for research even more.

The State university is headed by a Rector and a Central Governing Board. The latter approves new study sections and establishes academic grades and titles, normally proposed by faculty and school leaders. The faculties are headed by a Dean and a Board and have decisive influence in the university. In spite of the creation of some central institutes and the proliferation of a series of schools, the official Uruguayan university has preserved its essential character of being a federation of faculties. But the rules of financing are identical for all the university organs.

Adult Education

(See table 13). Public adult education comes under the Primary Education Board, which again is part of ANEP. As is the case elsewhere, the demand, as expressed, has nothing to do with potential demand. Figures show low enrolment, and financing is part of the budget of primary education. There is nothing equivalent in the private sector, although it does offer many other forms of adult education.

Primary and Secondary Teacher Training

(See table 14). Directly under the Central Governing Board of the ANEP, teacher training follows old traditions as regards primary school teachers, is more recent as regards secondary education teachers and much more recent –and very limited– for vocational technical teacher training (UTU). There are 21 teacher training institutes in Uruguay (excluding Montevideo), all situated in department capitals, with the exception of Colonia, where two institutes are located in Rosario and Carmelo. In Canelones, there are institutes in Pando and San Ramón, apart from the one in the department capital. There are four institutes in Montevideo: the Primary Teacher Training Institute, the Secondary Teacher Institute Artigas, the Superior Magisterial Institute and the Teacher Training Institute for Technical Education. The duration of studies, reduced to three years under the military regime, was back to four years in 1985.

To enrol in the institutes, students have to have successfully completed six years of secondary education. The 1985 Education Law stipulates that establishing and supervising teacher training at the 'tertiary' level is the responsibility of the Central Governing Board, and it thus legally eliminated the socalled pre-magisterial preparation, which was provided in all primary teacher training institutes, and which gave access to students who had only completed the first cycle of secondary education. This pre-magisterial preparation was a manner of completing secondary education, it lasted two years like the second cycle, but was valid only to enrol in the teacher training institutes. Its elimination gave rise to a lot a protests, despite the fact that acquired rights were recognized, and that it was eliminated step by step, the first year in 1985 and the second year in 1986.

There are considerable disparities in the situation of the graduates. They have one

Table 13

QUANTITATIVE EVOLUTION OF BASIC ADULT EDUCATION

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Public sector Enrolment	2 531	2 603	3 549	3 426	3 183	3 020	3 987	3 818

Table 14

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHER TRAINING

Montevideo-Enrolment

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
IPA	837	741	397	324	590
INET	90	132	41	32	65
IINN	316	355	547	246	229

Elsewhere-Enrolment

1984		1985		1986		1987		1988	
P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
928	195	91[illegible]	4[illegible]2	580	403	395	153	425	529
T. 1123		T. 1322		T. 983		T. 548		T. 954	

Montevideo-Graduates

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
IPA	193	228	153	311	–
INET	33	69	38	74	–
IINN	114	237	171	460	–

Elsewhere-Graduates

1984		1985		1986		1987	
P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
417	37	836	53	878	53	677	28
T. 454		T. 889		T. 931		T. 705	

The results of the second round of entrance examinations are not included. There is a diminution of the number of graduates in 1987, since the results of February 1988 and those of July 1988, which are part of the 1987 class, are not included.

thing in common: graduation does not guarantee them a post; for that, they have to compete in contests. While in primary education all posts are reserved for graduates from teacher training institutes, and they alone can teach, that is not the case for secondary education, nor for the Vocational Technical Education Board (UTU).

As regards secondary teacher training, although the Secondary Teacher Training Institute Artigas –founded in 1950 by Dr. Antonio M. Grompone– has produced a great number of graduates, it has not been sufficient to fill all posts. In fact, the situation is very complex. In some subjects, history and philosophy, for example, there are quite a number of graduates, who do not find posts and work only in occasional replacements. Outside Montevideo, there are generally more vacancies than candidates therefor. All in all, there is still an important contingent of teachers without posts, most of them working in replacements. A recent law has set up mechanisms to regularize this situation.

Finally, in the Vocational Technical Education Board (UTU), only few of the teachers hold degrees, this in spite of the fact that so many graduated teachers do not find work.

In 1987, the enrolment figure was 4 442, of which 2 543 in Montevideo and 1 899 in the rest of the country in the 21 teacher training institutes; this gives us an average of less than 90 students per establishment, with 189 students in the biggest –Tacuarembó and Rivera– to only 31, at the other end of the scale, in Treinta y Tres. The apparent lack of relationship between enrolment and population is interesting, and goes to show that enrolment is subject to various little known factors.

Another interesting fact is the extraordi-

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nary variations in enrolment, both in the capital and in the rest of the country.

Students who enrol in secondary teacher training and who pass examinations in the capital, are included in the enrolment figure for the rest of the country. The graduation rate among them is very low. There is no clear explanation of these big differences in number of enrolled. Enrolment seems to be subject to many conjunctural factors, which should be looked, as illustrated by the fact that, afterwards, enrolment becomes more stable, and there are less variations in number of graduates. Primary teacher graduates number about 400 outside Montevideo, but varies a lot (between 120 and 240) in the capital. Secondary teacher graduates number roughly 40 outside Montevideo and between 150 and 220 in Montevideo, at least for the years 1984, 1985 and 1986.

Financing is covered by the ANEP budget under the Central Governing Board; the teacher training schools are free along the same lines as the official university. For secondary teacher training, there are entrance examinations and restrictions in numbers per subject –although very flexible– and in this, the systems differes from the university.

Administration of the education sector during the period 1980-1987

Introduction

It is indispensable to distinguish between two sub-periods: 1980-1984 and 1985-1987. During the first, the military regime was still in command, and the education institutions were placed under government control. In the case of ANEP, which was called National Education Board (CONAE), the management was constituted not of five members, as the law stipulates, but of two: a Rector and a Vice-rector (the latter always a colonel), who were in charge of administering the system.

Financing, however, did not come under these authorities, but was fixed by the Executive. With the return to a constitutional regime, the old rules in this field were reestablished. Each of the public education institutions prepares a budget and sends it on to the Executive. If the latter is not in agreement with the budget –as is often the case– it prepares another budget and transmits both to Parliament for decision. In reality, the Executive has the last word in regard to financing because of its veto right over parliament decisions. In both cases, the budget as presented and the budget as approved are in fact global allotments for remunerations, functioning costs and investments. Inside each allotment, the education institutions in fact distribute funds in the way they consider best, within certain limits. For example, it is not possible to increase remunerations by transfers from functioning costs or from investments.

Once the five-year budget is established, modifications can only be made once a year when the nation's accounts are rendered, except during the last of the five years –election year– in which no particular salary increases can occur. Thus, the current budget was established in 1985 and modified later, after the statement of accounts; every four months, the Executive fixes the percentage of salary increase to compensate inflation for all civil servants and among them, for education personnel. When the four-monthly increments are higher than inflation, salaries grow, if they are less, salaries diminish. At the beginning of the democratic government, and before the budget was approved, special increments were established for education personnel; the same occured in the budget and in some statements of accounts, which explaims the increase in real remunerations, which we shall see later.

But no important changes were introduced to improve administrative efficiency. During the democratic regime, some measures have been adopted to centralize services, as we already mentioned, but the effects thereof can only be evaluated with time.

The budget of each institution is distributed by its management to cover the needs of the country as a whole. This leads to considerable centralization of costs, although some mechanisms exist –like for example the Department Commissions for School construction– to try to palliate the inconveniences thereof.

Evolution of the Expenditure per Student

(See table 15). It is very difficult in Uruguay to calculate the expenditure per pupil/student, and the figures given (7) can only be considered approximate.

When analyzing separately the evolution of the average cost per student by level of education, we clearly note a decrease over time. The per pupil cost in primary education decreases by some 10% between 1973 and 1987, 1984 being the lowest year of the period with an average decline of 33%. The reduction in per pupil cost in secondary education is of 14%, with 1983 as the lowest year with a loss of 30% of the 1973 value. In UTU, the relative decrease of the average cost per pupil is more than three times higher than in primary education and is situated around 33% less between the first and the last year of the period. Here 1984 is the lowest year with a loss of 51%. In

(7) Corbo et al.

the university, the loss in relative value of the per student cost is three times higher than in primary, and was situated, in 1987, at 30% less than in 1973, 1985 being the lowest year with a loss of 64%.

The above-mentioned reductions of the average expenditure per pupil/student occur despite the recuperation observed during the current administration, as compared to the last year of the military regime, which generally was the lowest of the period considered.

If we take 1984 as index 100, the increase of the average per student expenditure in each sub-system is the following for 1987: 32% in primary education, 32.5% in secondary, 36% in UTU and 50% in the university.

In a horizontal analysis of the evolution of the average expenditure per student, comparing the values of the sub-systems of education for the first and last year of the period under study, we see a reduction of the gap between primary/secondary education and technical/university education.

In 1973, the average expenditure per pupil in primary and secondary was more or less similar (hardly 9% more for secondary education). However, the average expenditure per pupil in primary and secondary education was not even half the per pupil expenditure in UTU and some four times less than the average expenditure per university student. The average per UTU pupil, on the other hand, represented a little less than half the cost per university student.

In 1987, the average expenditure per primary and secondary education pupil was practically the same (the difference was down to 3.5%). But the average expenditure per pupil at this level represented 39% less than that in UTU and a little more than a third less than in the university. We should here keep in mind how hazardous comparisons over time are in this last case because of the already mentioned difficulties in determining the real enrolment figure.

Evolution of Real Remunerations

(See table 16). During the period 1973-1978, the GDP grew with an average rate of 3.8%, which is high compared with the stagnation that preceeded; in the period 1979-1980, we see rates over 6%, then hardly any growth in 1981 and a sharp decline of 16% in 1982 –but still situated some 16% over the starting point.

However, in real terms, remunerations fell during the period considered. The kind of economic policy adopted, combined with the banning of all syndical and political activity, did that between 1973 and 1981 –and taking the first year as index 100– there was a fall to in-

Table 15

FUNCTIONING COST PER PUPIL/STUDENT
(constant values, 1987 prices)

Year	Average cost per pupil-primary	Average cost per pupil-secondary	Average cost per pupil-Tech Ed	Average cost per student-university
1973	61 584	67 062	134 140	281 065
1974	69 110	74 302	141 027	254 191
1975	62 777	69 192	115 067	280 829
1976	65 672	73 595	122 375	257 097
1977	56 584	69 796	115 751	214 852
1978	56 147	74 194	105 940	219 566
1979	55 488	69 372	109 101	299 607
1980	62 546	77 453	113 571	232 538
1981	64 615	85 472	113 562	270 184
1982	63 834	81 001	100 595	236 417
1983	47 701	59 535	76 558	146 739
1984	41 861	46 995	65 911	132 358
1985	44 379	48 857	74 463	128 518
1986	53 336	55 956	88 992	148 666
1987	55 474	57 503	89 690	198 928

Source: Elaborated by Celadu and presented in the before-mentioned study by Daniel Corbo and others on the basis of financial data in the Office of Planning and Budget and the enrolments in the Statistical Yearbook.

dex 71, in spite of economic growth. Recession aggravated the problem, and in 1984 the index had fallen to 51.

This general decline of real salaries was also seen in the rest of the public sector, although not everywhere, nor always to the same degree. The education sector was one of the least privileged. Taking 1973 as index 100, a teacher salary (primary education teacher, secondary or technical education teacher) had fallen to 36.3 in 1984, while a university teacher's salary had only fallen to 63.7.

The negative effects of this are evident. They may be summarized in one single aspect, which has many implications: the deprofessionalization of teachers.

In Uruguay, there have always existed teachers exercising other activities alongside with teaching but, during the time when salaries were relatively high, most teachers –the percentage is difficult to determine– made teaching their exclusive, or at least main, activity to earn their living. The decline in salaries made it necessary for them to work in other fields, or else to accumulate such a number of teaching hours between private and public education as to make it impossible to prepare their classes even mininally, not to mention to renew their knowledge. At the same time, there are more and more secondary teachers with very few teaching hours, for whom teaching is only one way of supplementing income from other main activities.

There is a shortage of studies to determine with some exactitude how much this has deteriorated the general quality of educational provision, but all indicates that its effects have been serious.

During the democratic government, salaries have recovered significantly, but they are still a long way from past levels. Recovery has been more notable in the university than in ANEP, which can be partly, but only partly, explained by the burden which ANEP salaries represent in the overall State budget. In effect, ANEP staff salaries –whether teachers or not– represent approximately one fifth of the salary post in the State budget, so that any increment at all will have important implications on the overall expenditure; this is of course not the case with the University.

Another feature has to be kept in mind. To put it in a simplified way, an increase in real salaries will not automatically diminish the "deprofessionalization". The harm is done, and teachers cannot easily let their other activities go, simply because their teaching income increases. At least not until the increase is tangible, and the teachers perceive the new salary policy as being stable, is there much hope of turning the tide. There is more effect to be hoped for with newly integrated teachers, for many of whom teaching is the main activity. To conclude, the negative effects of a restrictive policy in the field of salaries will continue to be felt for a long time to the detriment of educational policy.

The Problem of School Repetition and Dropout

Since funds allocated to education are insufficient, it is essential to analyze the degree of efficiency in spending.

In economic terms, when we add the total annual number of school repeaters and dro-

Table 16

EVOLUTION OF TEACHER EMOLUMENTS IN CURRENT AND REAL TERMS

Year	ANEP 20 hours weekly		University 20 hours weekly	Evolution in real terms 1973 (100)	
	First grade	Last grade	Grade 3	ANEP	University
1973	128.5	...	94.7	100	100
1975	357.0	...	357.1	...	...
1980	1 621.0	...	2 929.0	86.4	117.3
1982	3 740.0	...	4 540.0	60.4	99.5
1984	4 805.0	7 624	6 733.0	36.3	63.7
1985	7 816.0	12 168	12 807.0	...	...
1986	15 289.0	23 012	...	...	...
1987	24 465.0	36 824	...	...	...
1988	48 689.0	73 279	56 228.0	50.1	78.7

Source: OPP. 1988 Audit by Daguerre. Central Audit of ANEP and Personnel Division of the University. At the Beginning of each year, except 1988 from 1 May onwards for ANEP.

pouts to the average expenditure per pupil/student by level of education for the year 1985, we can deduct a net loss of resources measured in direct relation with expenditure alone.

When we compare the amounts of net annual loss in performance with the budget of the corresponding exercise, we can obtain an indicator of the degree of efficiency of the economic system.

As shown by table 17, the yearly wastage of resources due to repetition and dropout is very high, and particularly so in technical education.

However, in all the sub-sectors where data are available to elaborate an evaluation over a period of time, we see a relatively favourable evolution. Thus, the annual wastage of resources through repetition in primary education was equivalent to 17% of its yearly budget in 1974, but was reduced to 10% in 1987. There are fluctuations in secondary education, which do not enable us to establish a definite trend. The same occurs in UTU, but the percentages are always very high there.

External resources

It is unfortunately impossible to present systematic data on external resources. It is enough to repeat what has already been said in this respect and add a few supplementary considerations.

There have never been any systematic attempts to seek external resources to palliate the financial crisis in education. But as already mentioned, the most serious aspect for the crisis is salaries, and external financing cannot help to diminish that one. Only in the field of equipment and school construction could external resources be sought but, as we all know, they are not easy to obtain. At the university level, where the possibilities are better, there is more opposition to this kind of financing.

External cooperation has been very limited over recent years and has mainly consisted in scholarships and technical cooperation.

To give an indication of their volume in 1985, for example, only a little more than a hundred scholarships were granted in education. About half –fifty to the exact– are study and living grants in the USA for secondary pupils. The rest come from Germany, Spain, Holland, Japan, Israel, Italy, Belgium, France, Brazil, PAHO/WHO, OAS, IAEA, FAO, UN and UNESCO. There are from one-month grants to scholarships for a maximum of two years (four cases).

A considerable increase thereof can be observed in 1987: 117 scholarships, not considering the study and living grants in the USA, which would double the number. To the already mentioned countries and organizations, we should add: Argentina, Mexico, Sweden, Venezuela the IDB and the EEC. Among the countries, Spain is predominant. The duration of the scholarships goes from 3 days to two years (eight cases).

Despite this increase, the number of scholarships and grants is clearly very limited, and most of them are of short duration.

The OAS programme in education includes four projects for the 1986-1987 biennium for a total amount of US$ 257 354. We should mention that these projects were initiated long ago. What is effectively available for the biennium is the sum of US$ 56 595.

The UNESCO programme for 1986-1987, according to data provided by the Planning and Budget Office, which in fact provided all the data in this chapter, foresees a total amount of US$ 95.864.

Finally, from 1987 onwards, the United Nations Development Programme is the most important in the field of education. Between 1983 and 1988, there were only two projects for the total amount of US$ 224 000, of which 190 000 were under the system of shared costs. On the other hand, the most important project in education foresees a UNDP contri-

Table 17

WASTAGE OF RESOURCES THROUGH REPETITION AND DROPOUT IN 1978 CONSTANT PRICES

	Repetition	Dropout	Average Cost per Pupil	Annual loss of resources	Budget	% Wastage
Primary Education	38 468	3 463*	44 379	1 860 855	13 358 091	13.9
Secondary Education	21 139*	10 335*	48 857	1 537 725	6 449 142	23.8
Technical Education	9 394*	11 052*	74 462	1 522 450	4 020 997	37.8

Source: CELADU: Performance Data - ANEP Draft Budget, Vol. 1, pp. 23-25
Note *Year 1983

bution of US$ 813 000 over a period of four years. The objective of this project "PEDECIBA (Programme of Development of Basic Sciences) is to encourage scientific progress and recuperate Uruguayan researchers by reincorporating them in national activity. The PEDECIBA establishes five action areas in accordance with the requirements of the country and the human resources available; they are: biology, physics, informatics, mathematics and chemistry.

It should be mentioned that a significant component of this project is more directly related with scientific research than with education.

The above data clearly show that external cooperation, which of course should not be disdained, has no real effect on financing of educational expenditure.

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STRATEGIES UTILISED TO INTRODUCE A CARIBBEAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

Barbara Bailey(*)

Assessment and evaluation of student outcomes have always been an overriding concern of educational institutions at all levels. For almost a century (1882-1979) certification of Jamaican students at the secondary level, particularly in the traditional grammar schools had been controlled, for the most part, by overseas, examining syndicates such as Cambridge and London.

During that period many of the Caribbean territories, including Jamaica, were colonies of Britain, and their education systems, as was the practice of colonial dependencies, patterned that of the British. These systems evolved from institutionalised schooling offered as part of the 'Emancipation package' presented to the West Indies colonies in 1834.

Manley (1974) observes that, in Jamaica, the educational system was in every aspect influenced by the metropole and was "imported lock, stock and barrel from England without a moment's thought about its relevance to Jamaica's needs and aspirations". (p. 21).

This importation not only affected the philosophy and objectives of the system and the curricula for the schools but also the evaluation and certification of students. Roach (1971) confirms that the Overseas Cambridge examinations at the Preliminary, Junior and Senior levels were introduced in Jamaica in 1892, and the introduction of the Higher School level followed soon after. The Cambridge examinations at the Senior and Higher school levels continued until the 1950s and were subsequently replaced by the General Certification of Education at the Ordinary and Advanced levels, another form of the Cambridge examinations.

The conception of the idea of establishing a Caribbean based Examination Council for certifying students at the secondary level, dates back to 1946, and was the brainchild of Caribbean leaders such as Eric Williams, the then Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago. It is interesting to note that the establishment of the University College of the West Indies followed soon after in 1948, and represented another attempt to foster regional cooperation in education at the tertiary level.

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The call for the introduction and implementation of a 'Secondary School Leaving Examination' devised for, and set in the Caribbean was reiterated in the 1960s. A report of the 1961 Conference of Caribbean Heads of Governments, clearly reveals that there was at that time strong support for the setting up of some sort of Examination Council for the Caribbean.

In the early part of that decade there were strong feelings of nationalism in the Caribbean region which was evidenced in the establishment of the West Indies Federation. The 1961 Conference therefore felt that the rapid political and social changes taking place in the Caribbean region at that time demanded corresponding changes in education and cautioned that if the region did "not take conscious note of these changes we are likely simply to go on imitating old models which served their purposes fairly well in somewhat different circumstances". (Figueroa 1964, p. 7)

The participants at that Conference expressed the view that: "Education in the West Indies should recognise and strengthen the West Indian personality. Moreover it was suggested that secondary education should examine itself on what it can do to help young people form an acceptable and native dynamic self-image as West Indians". (p. 41)

Participants at the Conference were so

convinced of the role of education in this respect that definite guidelines were formulated for the initial organization of a West Indies Examining Council.

Soon after the holding of this Conference, however, the West Indies Federation became defunct, while territories like Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago gained their own political independence in 1962 and 1963 respectively.

During this period of politic change in the various Caribbean territories, the urgency for the establishment of a local examining body was temporarily forgotten. It was not until 1964 at another Conference of Heads of Governments of the Commonwealth Caribbean that a decision was taken to establish a Caribbean Examinations Council, charged with the responsibility of developing and introduce a system of examinations for candidates who had completed five years of secondary education.

Establishment of the Caribbean examinations Council

It has been established that in the case of most educational change, there is a considerable time lag between the conception or invention of an idea, and the actual adoption of the idea (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971).

The 'adoption" of the idea of establishing a Caribbean Examinations Council has been no exception to this general pattern. For, although a firm mandate was given in 1964 for the establishment of such a body, it was not until April of 1972 that a formal body was established, when fourteen Commonwealth Governments, by agreement, came together and established the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC).

The Council was mandated to develop and implement a Caribbean examination for candidates at the Ordinary level and, therefore, had as its first priority, the development of a system of examinations at two levels –General and Basic Proficiency levels– to replace the GCE Ordinary level and similar examinations conducted in the region by overseas examining syndicates.

The intention of the CXC (1), in replacing the British oriented system of examinations by a Caribbean based system is that:

- The examinations should be suited to the needs of the Caribbean societies and relevant to the goals of the participating Governments. In particular steps should be taken to:
  - achieve subject integration in as large a measure as is practicable;
  - promote the development at school level of technical and vocational courses which would provide the pupil with immediately usable skills in the world of work.
- The syllabuses should aim to provide a worthwhile course of study for students of a wider range of ability than now pass '0' level.
- The pass/fail concept should be abolished.

Innovation and Change: the Process

Several theorists in different disciplines have independently attempted to identify the stages of the change process and have proposed various paradigms which conceptualise how new ideas are invented and how prototypes are developed, disseminated and utilised in various fields. These models also give some indication of the relationship between these elements of the process. In the literature, there is therefore considerable confusion over the definition of the basic terms that are used to explain the major concepts of the change process across different disciplines.

Huberman (1973) points out that the problem is further compounded by the fact that even within a single discipline, as in the case of education, interdisciplinary specialists do not use a common language or common methods of research to explain change in the educational field.

Fullan (1982) in distilling the view of several educational researchers (Rosenblum and Lewis, 1979; Berman and McLaughlin, 1978; Yin et al, 1973; Zaltman et al, 1973), claims that most researchers in this field recognise three broad phases to the change process. The nomenclature assigned to these phases varies, and reflects the confusion in the change terminology referred to earlier.

Phase one, variously labelled initiation, mobilization, or adoption, consists of the processes which lead up to and include a decision to adopt or proceed with a change. Phase two is the implementation stage and involves the first experience of attempting to put the idea into place. Phase three, labelled as continuation, incorporation, routinisation or institutionalisation refers to whether the change becomes assimilated as an integral and accepted component of the system or disappears because of rejection or attrition.

(1) Caribbean Examinations Council, Western Zone Office Bulletin, Sept. 17, 1981, p. 1.

Fullan (op. cit.) adds a fourth phase to the process which he labels as outcome. This can be generally regarded as the degree of school improvement in relation to given criteria which results from the innovation.

Whatever terminology is applied to the stages of the process, the literature (Havelock, 1982; Taylor and Richards, 1979; Morrish, 1976) outlines three models which illustrate how change takes place. These are The Research, Development and Diffusion (R.D. & D.) model, posited by Clark and Guba (1965); the Social-Interaction (S-I) model of which the major proponents have been Carlson (1965), Mort (1964) and Ross (1958); and the Problem-Solving Model which is supported by social psychologists such as Watson (1967) and Lippitt et all (1958).

The R.D. & D. model assumes that change is a rational and sequential process where by an innovation is invented or some new prototype is developed on the basis of new knowledge advanced as a result of research. The new product is tested, evaluated and then mass produced and packaged. Planned strategies are utilised to diffuse the new product to potential users, who are viewed as passive recipients who will install and adopt the innovation. As a result the innovation is assimilated into and becomes an integral part of the user system.

Four major elements, therefore, characterise this process –Research, Development, Diffusion and Adoption– with several different activities being subsumed within each major category. (see Figure 1). This model stresses the developmental stages of the process and the importance of 'a priori' research to advance knowledge and is commonly employed to introduce new ideas in industry and agriculture.

The problem-solving model emphasises the role of the user system. In the instances where this strategy is utilised, innovation results from a problem-solving process that goes on within the user system, sometimes with the help of outside experts who assist in the diagnosis of needs. Solutions to problems are either retrieved from outside sources or formulated by the user, who weighs and evaluates each and selects the best alternative which is then implemented to satisfy the need. This paradigm does not incorporate a formal research stage but indicate how innovations are identified and adopted through the initiative of the user system.

The S-I model focuses on the diffusion aspect of the process and thus on individuals within social systems. It suggests patterns by which new knowledge is diffused through a system from the resource organisation (the innovator) to the user organisation (the adopter), through linkage groups and/or organisations. This model, therefore, does not explicitly highlight the research or developmental phases of the change process as does the R.D. & D. model, but rather assumes that these activities have already taken place. It therefore stresses the communication aspects of the process whereby the user system is made aware of an innovation, and assesses, tries, evaluates, and finally adopts it. This paradigm is commonly associated with the introduction of new agricultural practices and hence is based on evidence drawn from rural sociology.

Innovation and Change: The CXC Strategy

If one examines the activities involved in the establishment of the Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC) and the introduction of an examination system for school leavers at the secondary level, one can identify processes associated with aspects of the R.D. & D., the S-I and the problem-solving approaches to the development of change in social systems.

In fact, Havelock (op, cit) points out that although these three models represent different schools of thought of how innovation occurs, He advises that persons responsible for promoting change should regard each as illuminating different, but equally important aspects of a total process. The R.D. & D. model emphasises the origins of the innovation, the problem –solving model the dynamics of adoption and the social– interaction model emphasises how the innovation diffuses through a social system.

The process followed in taking the decision to create and establish a Caribbean based examination system closely parallels the tenets conceptualised in the problem-solving paradigm. The idea arose out of a 'felt need' to 'Caribbeanise' the secondary education system. It was recognised that when newly independent developing nations retain 'imported' models of education they "expose themselves to a powerful force of cultural imperialism and therefore perpetuate their dependency". (Crossley, 1984: p. 75)

The feeling, at the time, was that establishing a Caribbean system of certification would be a means of making the goals of secondary education and the school's curriculum more compatible with the needs and aspirations of Caribbean people and more relevant to the political and social changes of the time.

This need was clearly articulated at the 1961 Heads of Governments meeting and was reiterated at their second meeting in 1964.

Figure 1

A CLASSIFICATION SCHEMA OF THE R.D.&D. CHANGE PROCESS

	Research	**Development**		**Diffusion**		**Adoption**		
		Innovation	Design	Dissemination	Demonstration	Trial	Installation	Institutionalisation
Objective	To advance knowledge.	To formulate a new solution to some operating problem(s), i.e. *to innovate.*	To order and to systematise the components of the invented solution; to construct an innovation package for institutional use, i.e., *to engineer.*	To create widespread awareness of the innovation among practitioners, i.e. *to inform.*	To afford an opportunity to examine and assess operating qualities of the innotacion, i.e. *to build conviction.*	To build familiarity with the innovation and provide a basis for assessing the quality, value, fit, and utility of the innovation in a particular institution, i.e. *to test.*	To fit the characteristics of the innovation to the characteristics of the adopting institution, i.e. *to operationalise.*	To assimilate the innovation as an integral and accepted component of the system, i.e. *to establish.*
Relation to change	Provides basis for innovation.	Produces the innovation.	Engineers and packages the innovation.	Informs about the innovation.	Builds conviction about the innovation.	Tries out the innovation in the context of a particular situation.	Operationalises the innovation for use in a specific institution.	Establishes the innovation as a part of an ongoing programme; converts it to a 'non-innovation'.

Source Morrish, Aspects of Educational Change, Unwin Education Books, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1976.

Associated regional groups later became involved in the deliberations, and the idea was further consolidated with the formation of the Caribbean Free Trade Association (CARIFTA) in 1965. This organisation was later replaced by the Caribbean Community Common Market (CARICOM) and an educational desk was set up within its secretariat to identify areas of regional cooperation in education. However, it was not until 1972 that an agreement was signed and the decision to innovate was finally taken.

The period 1961 to 1972 therefore represents a period of active deliberations, when individuals in the innovating system, in collaboration with other reference groups actively identified and diagnosed an existing problem, searched for solutions and retrieved ideas related to the problem. This process led to the formulation of a solution, the application of which was realised with the launching of the Caribbean Examinations Council which was given the firm mandate to develop and implement the innovation (See Figure 2).

In the R.D. & D. approach, solutions are also formulated to overcome an existing problem, the difference being that this paradigm stresses the importance of an earlier empirical research stage to advance knowledge which provides the basis for the formulation of the solution. A formal research stage is, however, omitted in the processes leading up to the establishment of the Caribbean Examinations Council but one could regard the period of deliberations as serving the same purpose, i.e. advancing knowledge which was used as the basis for innovating.

In the Problem-Solving strategy the ideas and solutions which are identified are often in the form of ready-made innovation packages which are tested and evaluated to determine their suitability as a solution to the existing problem. Obvious stages of development of the innovation are therefore not evident in this paradigm as in the R.D. & D. model.

In the CXC process the establishment of the Council and the authority decision to innovate was immediately followed by a design phase which formally started in 1974. Both these tasks are subsumed under the Development phase of the R.D. & D. model (see Fig. 1), and from here onwards the strategy employed by the CXC to develop, diffuse and implement its system of examination closely approximates the pattern of the R.D. & D. paradigm with a few minor exceptions.

In order to construct and design the innovation, officials of the CXC met with officials of Examining Boards in the United Kingdom and West Africa to obtain information and assistance in instituting examining procedures. Assistance in training subject teachers and CXC staff members in the techniques of testing was supplied by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) of New Jersey.

Both these strategies although associated with the design phase, reflect aspects of the S-I model (See Fig. 2), for as Havelock (op. cit.) posits, in real life situations although the innovative phases occur in logical steps, they also involve the flow of ideas from person to person and group to group within and between social systems. In the case of the design phase of the CXC, assistance and expertise were gained by communicating with, and benefitting from, the experience of reference groups external to the innovating system. As a result of these initial activities, subject panels were appointed to develop curricula and accompanying testing methods for a range of academic and technical subject areas.

Dissemination of the innovation, a substage of the Diffusion Stage in the R.D. & D. model, started in 1977 immediately after the first five subject syllabuses were in place. Taylor and Richards (op. cit.) cite three patterns by which innovations are disseminated. In the centre-periphery' model, new proposals are developed centrally and dispatched from the centre to 'users' on the periphery. The 'proliferation of centres' model is a variation of this first in that one can distinguish between primary and secondary centres, with the latter being responsible for dissemination in localised areas. A third situation is outlined where there are no permanent centres but a number of shifting centres with a highly developed communication system which connects all parts of the network.

The CXC strategy for disseminating material corresponds to the proliferation of centres approach. The development of curricula and the determination of examination policy and procedure are managed centrally by the SEC (School Examination Committee) appointed by the Council. However, the dissemination of materials to local schools is usually carried out through national committees which operate under the aegis of their respective Ministries of Education. Jamaica is the only exception to this pattern. In this case, syllabuses and examination materials are distributed through an overseas examination office which carries out a similar function for the London and Cambridge Examining Boards. The SEC functions as a primary centre whereas the national committees, or the overseas examination office, as in the case of Jamaica, act as secondary centres for the local dissemination of material.

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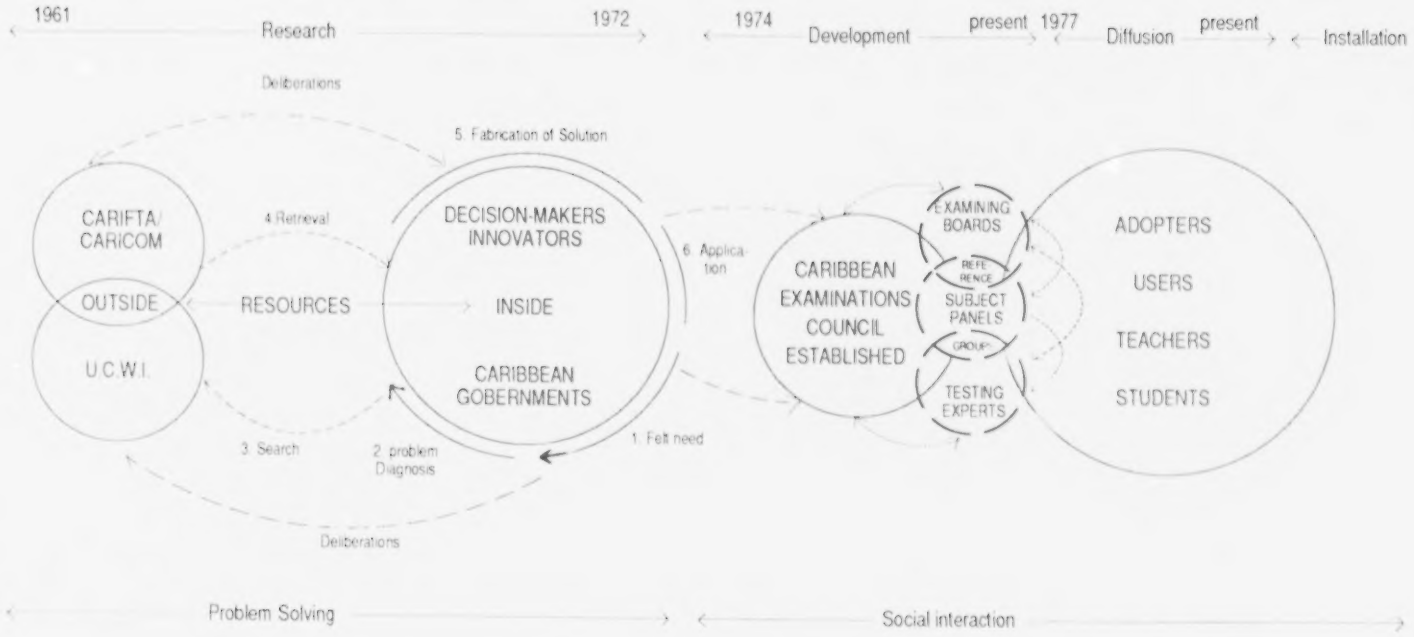
Figure 2

TO ADVANCE KNOWLEDGE – BASIS FOR INNOVATION



CHANGE PROCESS
CARIBBEAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

The S.I. model stresses the importance of interpersonal networks of information, of opinion leadership, of personal contact and social integration for disseminating information concerning the innovation. Emphasis on the creation of this sort of social network was noticeably weak in the initial stages of the diffusion of the CXC innovation. This could have been due, in part, to the lack of vehicles for carrying out these functions and, in part, to the fact that the CXC innovation represented an authority-decision where individuals within the adopting system had no option but to adopt the new practice on the instruction of individuals in a position of higher authority than themselves. Latterly there has been more effort to create oppotunities for this type of interaction through the provision of workshops, seminars, training programmes etc.

Demonstration of the innovation is identified as another element of the diffusion phase in the R.D. & D. framework. In the case of the CXC, however, demonstrations of the innovation were not feasible because of the nature of the innovation, so that the CXC change model departs from the R.D. & D. paradigm in this respect.

The R.D. & D. model recognises three phases to the adoption process, viz: trial, installation and institutionalisation. The first examination trials were run in 1978 and 1979 when examinations were conducted in five subjects in selected pilot schools in twelve participating territories.

This strategy of introducing the examinations on a phased basis was utilised to allow teachers to develop some familiarity with the new system and to provide the CXC with some means of assessing 'the quality, value, fit and utility of the invention in a particular situation'. (Clark and Guba, 1965). Feedback was achieved through reports made by the examiners for each subject area, and on the basis of these reports, adjustments are made when they are deemed necessary.

The trial phase, like the preceding ones, continue through to the present time, and will continue indefinitely, since it has been the continuing practice of the CXC to develop and implement new syllabuses and their related examinations on a phased basis. Since the dissemination and trial of newly developed curricula and examinations have been on a phased basis, the installation of the innovation, therefore, had followed a similar pattern.

Institutionalisation is regarded as the final stage of the adoption process and of the change process as outlined in the R.D. & D. paradigm (See Fig. 1), and is the stage at which the innovation is accepted as an integral and accepted component of the social system. Although the CXC is still in the process of designing examination procedures in new subject areas at the Ordinary level and is contemplating moving into the Advanced level, it was envisaged that by 1987 examining procedures for some 28 subjects would have been established and institutionalised. The anticipated result was to be the replacement of the Cambridge and London GCE examinations and other imported examination systems by the CXC General and Basic Proficiency level examinations.

A review of the statistics of entries for the 1987 CXC examinations, however, show that in the case of one participating territory, Jamaica, the goal of "institutionalisation by 1987", is far from being realized.

Table 1

1987 CXC AND GCE ENTRIES FOR 10 SUBJECTS (JAMAICA)

1985 Grade II Enrolment	Subject	CXC Entries	% of Enrolment	GCE Entries	% of Enrolment
31,275	Eng. Language	13 402	42.85	4 506	14.41
	Eng. Literature	3 998	12.78	252	0.81
	Spanish	1 389	4.44	46	0.15
	French	322	1.03	34	0.11
	Geography	3 616	11.56	385	1.23
	Caribbean History	4 267	13.64	1 047	3.35
	Mathematics	12 613	40.33	2 787	8.91
	Prin. of Accts.	4 377	14.00	1 897	6.07
	Food & Nut.	1 001	3.20	97	0.31
	Wood Work	68	0.54	119	0.38

The data in Table 1 indicate an approximate percentage entry of Grade II candidates for ten subjects in the 1987 CXC and Cambridge GCE examinations. The numbers given for CXC reflect entries at both the General and Basic proficiency levels while the GCE figures reflect both School and private candidates. The Grade II enrolment figures represent the 1985 levels since more recent data were not available. The levels, however, would not fluctuate markedly from year to year.

Although the level of entry is higher for CXC than for GCE for all the subjects, the percentage level of entry for CXC represents varying segments of eligible entrants. The CXC examinations, therefore, have replaced, for the most part, the overseas Cambridge GCE Ordinary level examinations and in that respect has satisfied the overall intention of the "inventors". In Jamaica, however, the CXC examinations are not mandatory and local examinations such as the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) still prevail and presumably accounts for the Grade 11 students nor reflected in either the GCE or CXC entries in Table 1.

One can conclude, therefore, that in the case of Jamaica the Government agreed, to subscribe to the establishment of a Caribbean Council for certifying school-leavers at the secondary level in principle only for this has not been supported by the issuing of an edict to guarantee the institutionalisation of the innovation. In fact, the Government has continued, through its Ministry of Education, to provide alternative routes for certification.

This display of ambivalence on the part of participating Governments will, no doubt, thwart attempts to fully institutionalise the innovation, and thereby block achievement of the stated goals. The Council, therefore, needs to ensure that government honour their agreement by eliminating all school-leaving examinations other than the CXC General and Basic proficiency level examinations. One recognises that there are several attendant problems that will need to be addressed to facilitate complete institutionalisation of the innovation. In Jamaica, this will only be possible if policy-decisions are taken to rationalise education at the secondary level and so create more equity across the different types of secondary schools that presently exist.

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THE SCHOOL COUNCILS AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT. AN ARGENTINIAN EXPERIENCE

Antonio P.F. Salviolo(*)

Regarded as positive, is the qualification given to the results of a two-year working period of the Schools Councils' in the province of Buenos Aires, instances that have been of a great help for the participation of different educational actors in the search of innovating solutions to the problems the sector is facing.

Background information and prospects on this matter were expressed by the Minister Director General of Schools and Culture of the Province of Buenos Aires, Mr. Antonio P.F. Salviolo, during the course of a seminar on this matter organized by the Regional Office of Education for Latin America and the Caribbean.

The event took place in Santiago, during the visit Minister Salviolo paid to Chile from 18 through 22 March, and when he also contacted different national authorities and specialists from OREALC.

Below, we are presenting a summary of the lecture given by Minister Salviolo during the seminar, on the experience gathered by the School Councils and the educational development in the present context of the province of Buenos Aires.

The educational authorities of the province of Buenos Aires were not unaware of the opposition the launching of the Schools Councils' Project could generate –as a result of which–, no exaggerated expectations were kept as to the acceptance this project could receive at the beginning of its implementation. In spite of that, before less than two years from the signature of the provincial decree authorizing the establishment of Schools Councils' there is no doubt about the success achieved by the project. School Councils established and working in the educational establishments of the province are contributing to improve the quality of education being offered, to solve or reduce the problems generated by lack of resources, and they have created a more stimulating working atmosphere. Till date, more than 800 School Councils have been created throughout the province of Buenos Aires.

(*) Antonio P.F. Salviolo - Minister Director General of Schools and Culture, province of Buenos Aires.

Background information

The present provincial administration took over the government in December 1987. As far as politics is concerned, one of the important objectives of the electoral program had to do with the participation of the people of Buenos Aires in the development of the government program. As far as the educational sector is concerned, it was emphasized the need of participation of the educational community in the different management actions throughout all the educational system.

At the time of assuming the government, the new educational authorities devoted themselves to the task of developping programmes that would make it effective the participation of the community in the exercise of the sector's management, being convinced that all those involved were in the position to think and take decisions with respect to the educational programmes.

For that reason, the School Councils Project was conceived as an organic channel of participation and as mean for the transfer or distribution of power from the central authority to the community in itself, in which case,

economical circumstances were not considered a hindrance, since it basically depended on the will and political decision to make it effective.

The idea of creating School Councils where all members of the community would have participation (directors, teachers, students, parents, non-teaching people, the school cooperator plus a legal representative for the instances of private services) originated opposition in different sectors. Both, directors and teachers, religious groups and many parents were afraid that the opinion coming from very different groups would generate anarchy in the management of the school. For that reason, the new authorities convinced that an adequate participation had to be assured, decided to approve a Decree which "authorized" –it did not impose, did not compel–, the creation of these Councils.

The initiative was attacked from different sides and by different reasons. The left criticized it because it was understood as a facultative measure which would not allow the achievement of an important impact. The right denounced the fact that the authorization had been given through a Decree and not by Law. This fact, he said, did not give the chance for a public discussion, in which case, it would have become evident that the disposition would cause anarchy in the management of educational establishments. The Unions, initially, adopted a relatively critical attitude. The Educational Workers Union of the province of Buenos Aires (SUTEBA) was in agreement with the idea (at least, they did not reject it), but the Buenos Aires Educators Federation (FEB) considered that the Councils meant an interference with the work of the teachers.

Results

The authorization to create the School Councils inclosed all educational establishments and services, at the different levels. However, and even within the outlines stipulated by the specific regulation of level or course of action, each Council had to set up its own operational rules. The decree established that any person who could be in conditions to form part of the Council –could promote its constitution.

The experience indicates that as rule, it has been the Director of the School the determinant element for the creation and operation of the corresponding Council.

Almost a ten percent of the 9000 establishments of the province of Buenos Aires have created their School Council. From the 820 School Councils established till date, 651 correspond to adults' educational services (297), basic (248) and secondary (106), figure which represents the 80% of that total. Up till now, no significant difference is appreciated between the urban and rural services, both, from the quantitative as well as the qualitative point of view. The latter, as far as to the different participation levels from either communities; nevertheless, there definitely are differences observed in their nature, due to the different quality of the problems they face, or which they are involved with.

The main contributions of the Councils in operation have been the distinctness of problems in the moments of crisis and the suggestion of propositions. For instance, there are some 170.000 young men that can only attend classes during two and half or three and a half hours per day. They conform the so called "reduced shifts" which are fitted into the regular working hours of the establishments. The solution, in long term, will be to build new premises, but the hyperinflation affecting the country, turns this possibility unfeasible.

The Councils have allowed the awakening of uneasinesses and have stimulated activities which only depend on local decisions. A school from "La Matanza" district, for example, has encouraged the creation of a vegetable garden and of a labour pool. That community also discovered that its main problem was alcoholism. They have received cooperation to carry out campaigns aimed at controlling it and to generate support groups in favour of those affected by that illness. With these purposes, they have opened the school and used its premises during Saturdays and Sundays.

In many cases, the School Councils have coordinated their actions with the Educational Councils which operate in each one of the districts of the province (they form part of the provincial educational system) and which are integrated by the representatives of the political parties arising from ordinary elections (they are jointly elected with the community authorities). Also frequently, the School Councils coordinate their activities with the Parents Association (Cooperators) with the purpose of establishing priorities for the building or maintenance of establishments.

The concerns of the Councils, by order of priority are: the buildings and the rest of infrastructure which must be provided by the Ministry (60% of secondary level establishments share their premises with basic schools); the safety within the schools themselves, since the robbery of elements exists (for example, of food used in the "cup of milk", school luncheons or snacks) or persons that look for the opportunity to cause damages to the establishment (it has to do with the repeated problem of young men and children who attack the school that segregates them), relationship between education and production as a way to find jobs more easily (what can the

school do to train its students for different types of jobs); discipline inside the school in general and finally, some specific aspects of the curricular design. Up to this moment, there has not been a link between the teachers' training programs and the demands of the School Councils.

Potential problems

Up to this moment, Schools Councils' have not reproduced the national political discussion, but it is a problem that may eventually arise. Pressures have existed, coming from persons or groups who have wanted to constitute themselves in a political reference in order to change priorities, but till now the domination by political bosses has not been able to affect the Councils' performance.

It is difficult to promote the participation of the medium-high social level groups that use the educational system. They do not show a real interest, since many of the problems in this case, can be solved individually by the families themselves (they ignore that with a lower social cost it would be feasible to achieve the same). Also, there is a lack of a stronger contribution from the teachers' federations. Teachers still consider the Councils are an interference in their activities. The "FEB" has never been directly in opposition to the idea, but neither has supported it enthusiastically.

In many occasions, the Minister and his assistants have stated that offering an ample participation –does not assure that all demands will be given true satisfaction or that these are guarantee of a priority. It has been observed that the capacity to formulate claims seems to be in an inverse relation to the needs of people. At the same time, it is feared that the impossibility to satisfy all the demands may frustrate an increasing request of reiterated demands within the same School Councils.

Adjustments in the administration

For the best development of the Project, it was necessary to adequate the organization of the Ministry of Education of the province (the present denomination is "General Direction of Schools and Culture of the province"). For this purpose, it was created the Central Coordinating Commission of School Councils, integrated by the Central Technical Equipment and by a representative from the School Councils Area that operates in each one of the branches of teaching, or offices with supporting services (Direction of School Cooperators, Direction of Educational Councils, etc.).

Next stages

Two years have gone by, and today there is no fear against participation. In the place of anarchy, there is coordination and an innovation dynamics together with a search for real solutions. However, there still persists the opposition from the sectors that promote a greater private activity. The following step, which will be carried out during 1990, will be in charge of duplicating the present amount of establishments that operate with a School Council and of vitalizing the action in those where the directors have assumed a too protagonic role, thus limiting the dynamics of the Council.

The pattern starts to spread out. In Rio Negro, it has been considered the implementation of a similar one, even empowered for the evaluation of teachers. This step involves evident risks, so it will be necessary to follow the new experience closely. The First Provincial Meeting of Schools Councils', which is being programmed by the Ministry of Education of Buenos Aires, may well contribute to the increment in the spreading of the pattern and to improve it, in order to eliminate real or potential problems.

There seems to be no doubt about the fact, that in the history of education in Argentina, people will talk about "before" and "after" the creation of the School Councils. In any case, even though the idea seems to be accepted, there is a consent regarding the fact that utmost care should be exercised during the evaluation of the results obtained up till now. OREALC can very much contribute to reaffirm the objectivity of that stage.

OREALC ACTIVITIES

REGIONAL NETWORK FOR THE TRAINING OF PERSONNEL AND SPECIFIC SUPPORT IN LITERACY AND ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES –REDALF–

Type of activity:
Research

Period of the activity:
First quarter 1990

Name of the activity:

Regional research on Adults' Primary Education (EBA)

In February 1990, OREALC started with the regional comparative study on the basis of the preliminary results obtained from the REDALF Regional Investigation of the EBA, sponsored by the Regional Office for Education in thirteen countries of the region during 1988-1989. The tasks accomplished during the quarter include the final report of the regional study, which contains:

- Writing of the theoretical framework about the EBA on the basis of available data, specially researches and regional reports on the subject;
- Formulation of "ex-post-facto" hypothesis together with distinctly expressing the study variables.

Related/cooperators/benefited institutions:

EDUCAR (Brazil), UPN (Colombia), General Board of Adults' Education (Costa Rica), CEPP (Ecuador), General Board of Adults' Education (El Salvador), Literacy and Adults' Education Board (Guatemala), General Board of Adults' Education (Honduras), Adults' Education Board (Nicaragua), Adults' Education Board (Panama), INIDE (Peru), CIEP (Uruguay) and the General Board of Adults' Education (Venezuela).

Most of these institutions are foreparts of the REDALF, or form part of this network in their respective countries.

Type of activity:
Training and technical assistance

Period of the activity:
26-30 March, 1990

Name of the activity:

Technical assistance to the Seminar on Strategic Planning of the National Program "Ecuador studies"

Complying with a request from the Minister of Education from Ecuador, the regional specialist on adults' education attended the Seminar on Strategic Planning of the National Program "Ecuador studies", held in Quito, from March 26-30. This initiative had its origin in the recent National Literacy Campaign "Monseñor Leonidas Proaño" and also considering the "ILY" and the results of the World Conference on "Education for All" UNESCO/UNDP/UNICEF/World Bank, held in Thailand. Ecuador is one of the first countries in the region raising as their own, the proposals of this Conference.

The general objective of the seminar, was to outline the strategic frame for the National Program "Ecuador studies" together with the establishment of the operating plans and intersectoral activities.

Type of activity:
Research

Name of the activity:

Noted World Bibliography on Literacy

An OREALC consultant financed by the "BIE" prepared the 35 summaries and comments on the most important works referring to literacy in the region of Latin America and the Caribbean, which will become part of the Noted World Bibliography on Literacy, to be published by the "BIE".

Type of activity:
Evaluation

Name of the activity:

"Synthesis of the external evaluation of the National Literacy Campaign Monseñor Leonidas Proaño" - Ecuador

During the quarter, a consultant from OREALC to-

gether with a national team, prepared the final report of the external evaluation of the Project ECU/89/009 belonging to the National Literacy Campaign Monseñor Leonidas Proaño.

The objectives of the evaluation were to determine: the levels reached –through a test–, by the people being made literate with respect to their reading-writing abilities; the incidence in these learning results, of the characteristics and training of the literacy teachers and of other factors of the educational process; and the influence of the Campaign in the community.

The specific aspects were evaluated and the impact of the process on the literates, focussed to support educational actions for the adult population.

According to the report, the evaluation made reference, among others, to the following aspects: general characteristics of the literates; spreading and promotion of the campaign; results reached in reading and writing; results reached by the literates and their characteristics; age, sex, job, children at school, school background and physical characteristics; main uses given the basic abilities acquired through reading and writing; participation of the literates in community activities; actions of social replevy and participation in popular organizations; the human rights' lawsuits with a greater impact on the literates; main factors of the educational process and results achieved in reading and writing; dropout.

In accordance with data from the external evaluation report, only 70% of the literate population is in conditions to read and write in a basic way, and the literates show better results in the development of basic writing abilities than in the reading ones.

It was also confirmed that a team work course of action, plus a customary and full time attendance to sessions, and the kind of training of the reading and writing teachers (levels for the reading of documents and preparation of classes) have remarkably influenced the learning achieved by the literates. 66.828 students took part in it as reading and writing teachers coordinated by 6.000 teachers; 285.350 people were registered, out of which 180.381 completed their literacy activities.

Type of activity:
Development project

Name of the activity:

"Literacy and Post-Literacy with audiovisual means"

This project, implemented in different places in Peru –concluded in February. The products presented during this quarter were the following:

- The book "Literacy with video: a proposition, a fact", gathers the experience developed by both the UNESCO/AGFUND Project PER-10 and the UNDP/UNESCO PER-81/005. It was presented as the initiation of the "ILY" activities in Peru, to educational authorities and representatives of non-governmental organizations (NGOs). It deserved been high-lighted in the booklet on the "ILY" which UNESCO presented during the recent Conference on "Education for All" held in Thailand, in March.
- production of the video program "A challenge for all", on the scope of the methodological proposal and the achievements of the Project.
- extension of the literacy video programmes to urban - marginal zones, which became effective with the signature of 6 agreements with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and one university, who received all the necessary materials and equipment for its implementation.
- preparation of the document "Scope for the use of the video literacy programmes through open channel".
- adjustments to the Didactic Guidebook of the proposal of literacy through video, to be used by an open channel.
- final report.

Type of activity:
Publications

During the month of February, the promotional document of "Literacy and Civic Education for country-women in Peru" was examined, which is a result of the Project bearing the same name, that was implemented between 1986 and 1988 by the non-governmental institutions CENDIPP (at Viña Alta de La Molina, Lima) and Peru Woman (in communities belonging to the department of San Martin), as well as by the Ministry of Education through its Literacy Board (in indigenous communities of the Peruvian central sierra).

The document includes maps, photographs, drawings and synthesis of the publications originated by the Project.

Type of activity:
Research

Name of the activity:
Study on "The practice of communication in adults' education"

A consultant was hired to develop the subject "The

practice of communication in adults' education", which will be published within the framework of the "ILY".

Related/cooperators/benefited institutions and results expected: Those the publication is addressed to, will be the educational planners and teachers in the areas of literacy, post-literacy and adults primary education; educational communicators, teachers and students of educational and communication sciences.

Type of activity:
Training

OREALC/CREFAL activities within the REDALF framework

During the month of March, and in the framework of the REDALF, communications were sent out for the organization of OREALC/CREFAL activities for the formation of teams that will be in charge of the REDALF training programmes during the years 1990-1991.

It was agreed to hold, during the second semester of 1990, a Regional Course on Adults Education at the CREFAL premises (Patzcuaro, Michoacan) that would cover the following aspects:

- Evaluation of design, processes, results of literacy programmes.
- Learning methodology of reading-writing and mathematics.
- Planning and joint action in research.

Type of activity:
Horizontal cooperation and technical assistance

Name of the activity:
Traineeship in Mexico

A REDALF traineeship is being organized, dealing with the bilingual and bicultural education of indigenous groups in Mexico.

The "INEA" –key organism of the REDALF in Mexico–, is organizing this activity with OREALC support, granting the vacancy for this traineeship –which includes a seminar on bilinguism, advising in the preparation of didactical materials, as well as visits to different ethnical groups in the country.

Type of activity:
Research

Name of the activity:
Study on "The evaluation of adults' literacy in Latin America and the Caribbean"

A consultant was hired with the purpose of: preparing the paper on "Evaluation of adults' literacy in Latin America and the Caribbean", based on documents and evaluating reports presented at the Regional Seminar on Educational Policies and National Literacy Strategies for the period 1990-2000 (Managua, November, 1989).

Type of activity:
Horizontal cooperation and technical assistance

Name of the activity:
Organization of the REDALF's itinerant teams for the support to countries facing major literacy problems

It has already started the selection and summoning of specialists' teams to give support in the following geographical areas: Central America (El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua), Andean zone (Bolivia, Ecuador and Peru) and the Latin Caribbean (Haiti and Dominican Republic).

The specialists's teams will develop these activities between the months of September and October, 1990.

REGIONAL NETWORK FOR THE TRAINING, INNOVATION AND RESEARCH IN THE FIELDS OF PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION OF BASIC EDUCATION AND OF LITERACY PROGRAMMES –REPLAD–

Training of trainers

I Regional Seminar-Workshop on the training of trainers in the Planning and Administration of the Education

In accordance with what has been planned, the activities corresponding to the third stage of this Seminar-Workshop, have continued being developed in different countries.

Proposals have been received for the development of similar activities from: Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Mexico, Dominican Republic and Venezuela.

II Seminar-Workshop on Training of Trainers

Within the framework of activities of the REPLAD Network and with the financial cooperation from the Spanish

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Government, it is underway the organization of the II Seminar-Workshop on Training of Trainers, to be held in Santiago, from October 1st, through the 31st, 1990. Invitations have been sent out to the Ministers of Education accordingly, so that they –together with the member institutions of the REPLAD Network in their respective countries–, may nominate the candidates that comply with the required qualifications of professional experience, academic training, institutional responsibility, and with the necessary motivation to drive the renewal processes in the educational planning and management.

The contents of the Seminar-Workshop will be similar to those of the one already carried out, and the subjects will be articulated around two or three central ideas, one of which will be "The planning and evaluation of literacy programmes". The Seminar will have three stages: the first one, dedicated to the collection of information on aspects of the formal and non-formal educational system in each country; the second one, the team works with the Coordinator on the comparison of national experiences and presentations by experts; and the third one, it will be devoted to the preparation of a written document by each one of the participants, in his own country, on an aspect of the problematic of the group whom he worked with in Santiago.

PLANS FOR NATIONAL NETWORKS - REPLAD

Venezuela

National Plan for the Venezuela's Network

Within the framework of activities of the REPLAD at a regional and national level, and with an intention of obtaining a greater accuracy and guidance in the national efforts, the Planning and Budget Sectorial Office (OSPP) of the Ministry of Education and the Center of Studies of Development (CENDES) belonging to the "Universidad Central" of Venezuela –coordinating institutions of the REPLAD Network in Venezuela–, have published the features and programmes which conform the Network's National Plan in the medium term.

With the purpose of increasing the national capacities on planning and management, the Plan foresees strengthening its coordination capacity so as to achieve a more diversified coverage for the initiatives of training and research in the areas covered by the Network.

The programmes of the plan consider:

- In the area of learning and training:
  - The national replica of the regional Seminar-Workshop in trainers of trainers in educational planning and administration.
  - Courses and workshops with the purpose of up-dating the professional culture of the staff working in the different spheres of responsibility in the management.
- In the area of research:
  - Comparative research on decentralization and social management in the basic education.
  - National survey on the needs for training in planning.
  - Research on quality indexes for the evaluation of educational policies.
- In the area of cooperation:
  - Expansion of the national institutions of the Venezuela Network.
  - Even broaden opportunities for the regional exchange.

Seminar-Workshop on Planning Technics. Strategies applied to Education

In accordance with what has been established in the National Plan, this activity begun on January 15, sponsored by the "CENDES" with the cooperation of the General Board of Primary Education, from the Ministry of Education. Twelve staff members of the Ministry are part of it, and it is oriented towards training on the methodological tools prepared in accordance with the new concept in planning.

- Objectives

To use the instruments of strategic planning for the preparation and evaluation of plans, with the purpose of solving problems existing in primary education.

- Program

The subjects were divided into three modules:

Module 1: The explanatory moment: a) Identification of the problem; b) Kinds of problems: structural, semi-structural and non-structured; c) The causative explanation; d) Demarcation of the problem.

Module 2: a) Designing of operations/activities.

Module 3: The strategic moment. Sub-systems for the pre/post evaluation of the decision: a) The subsystem of operations' management; b) The subsystem of the backing of

decisions; c) The budget by program; d) The Room of instances.

- Duration: 16 weeks, with 3 hours of weekly credits.

RESEARCH

Project for the utilization of training materials in the methodology of research: Starting level

This project has been initiated with the coordination of the "Universidad de Monterrey", Mexico, counting with the joint participation of the "PIDE" and "REPLAD/ OREALC". It includes institutions of Bolivia, Ecuador, Honduras, Panama, Peru, Dominican Republic and Venezuela. The training material for methodology of the research on a starting level is composed of six modules, which in the future will be produced through multi-media. Its purpose, is to prepare research teams, without previous experience in this field, in order for them to use this material and develop a micro-research, selecting and applying the methodologies and technics of collection and analysis of the information, so as to finally proceed with the Report on the research.

TRAINING

Colombia

Training course for improvement of the administration and planning of regional and local education in the Orinoquía-Amazonía region

Within the framework of the Colombian REPLAD, it took place in Bogota, from November 19 through 25, 1989, the No 2 phase of this course. It was organized by the Faculty of Education of the "Universidad del Valle" together with the Planning Office of the Educational Sector of the Ministry of National Education, with the support of the Regionalization Educative Project of the "OEA" and the "REPLAD/ OREALC".

Its purpose was to stimulate –starting from the reports prepared by the participants–, the knowledge of the present socio-educational situation in the macro region of the Orinoquía and Amazonía, generating and channeling some basic reflections and questions about it. The development of this event, had as its objective, to increase the commitment of the attendant to lead and give dynamism to his specific work in each one of the territorial entities of origin. The subjects considered were: Identification of common and particular elements in the territorial entities, and their trends in the macro-region; The education's regional planning: theoretical and methodological aspects; the educational profiles, as an instrument of analysis of the regional educational situation; and, the role played by the information and statistics' systems in the preparation of the regional educational profiles.

PUBLICATIONS

- Fourth Technical Meeting of the Regional Network for the Training, Innovation and Research in the fields of the Planning and the Administration of Primary Education and of the Literacy Programmes – REPLAD.
  Final report. (Quito, Ecuador, 2-6 October, 1989). It contains a detailed report of the Meeting, and includes the basis-documents prepared to be discussed in it. It also describes the REPLAD Plan of Activities for the 1990-1991 biennium.
- *Financiamiento de la educación en período de austeridad presupuestaria (*Financing of education during a period of budgetary austerity). Compiled by Ana María Corvalán. Therein, a homage is paid to Aldo E. Solari, an Uruguayan sociologist who died recently. The subject of financing was discussed at the Meeting on the same subject held in Argentina, from November 9 through 11, 1988. It describes the situation and prospective of the financing of the educational systems in Latin America and the Caribbean, the capacity of educational systems to answer present demands and strategies to overcome the crisis of educational systems and of financial requirements.

REGIONAL NETWORK FOR THE TRAINING, IN-SERVICE TRAINING AND FURTHER TRAINING OF TEACHERS –PICPEMCE–

Follow-up of the II Meeting on Planning and Evaluation of the Network (Quito, November 1989)

As an immediate result of the above mentioned meeting, work "circuits" on each one of the lines of action of the "PICPEMCE" –have started to integrate. This action will have to start at the national level and with the promotion of the key institutions, with the purpose of finding in the immediate future its relationship with other national "instances" of countries sha-

ring the Network, thus in this way, developing the "regional circuit".

The lines of action approved by the meeting of Quito, over which, the circuits will have to be developed, are the following:

- Reading and writing learning.
- Learning of Sciences.
- Humanistic, ethical and cultural values in education.
- Integral development of children from 0 to 7 years old.
- Incorporation of disabled children to the regular school system.
- Re-organization of policies and institutions devoted to the training and in-service training of teachers.
- Education through the art, recreation and sports.
- Coordination between education and work.
- Education in indigenous populations.
- Rural education.
- Education of streets' children and young men.

Summoning to a Contest of Projects on Reading - Writing and Calculation

OREALC, acting as Coordinator of the PICPEMCE Network has summoned –through the key institutions–, to a contest for the establishment of some demonstrative projects of pedagogical intervention in the reading– writing and the calculation problems, as factors causing school failure.

The projects offering the best conditions, from the standpoint of the UNESCO Program and that of the Major Project, will be sponsored by OREALC who, through the PICPEMCE, will organize a system of technical support for them, based on the horizontal cooperation, in such a way thay all members of the Network, may in one way or another, have a participation in the selected projects.

Seminar on "Studies on Poverty"

Jointly with the UNICEF, OREALC sponsored and participated in the Seminar "Studies on poverty", organized by CEANIM (an "NGO" specialized in studies and assistance to child and woman).

This event took place from January 15 through 18, and it was attended by 80 persons coming from different sectors. ECLAC furnished its premises for the event.

Course on Teacher in-service training

OREALC, through the specialist Rodrigo Vera Godoy, offered the course on "Specifying the needs of teacher in-service training", subject related to the PICPEMCE Network. This event is part of the mastery which the University of Sheebrook, Canada, is granting to "ACICAPI" (Colombian Association of Institutions of Intermediate Careers).

The course was held in the city of San Cristobal, Venezuela, from April 4 through April 7, with the attendance of the 15 students of the mastery, who in turn, are managers in charge of the in-service training in their respective institutions.

REGIONAL INFORMATION SYSTEM –SIRI–

Area: *Data base on qualitative and statistical educational information*

Line: *Statistical educational base by countries*

There is an interest in generating an educational data base of the countries in the Pacific which, eventually, may allow an easy communication between countries interested. Pamela Keating, Associate Director of the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, University of Washington at Seattle, informed the SIRI about the interest of its institute in this task. A representative from the Institute will visit OREALC in order to consider possible ways of cooperation.

Area: *Analysis of the statistical and documental information*

Line: *Publications*

The preliminary report on the Situation of Education in the region for the period 1980-1987, presents comparative figures on the access, coverage, efficiency, literacy and experiences for the improvement of quality in education. That report was published in Bulletin 20 of the Major Project. An English version was distributed, as separata, at the Conference on Basic Education for All, held at Jomtien, Thailand.

The micro-fiches of the "Bibliographic Report, Cuba" (RAE 5332) and of the "Bibliographic Report, Mexico" (RAE 5371) are available, and the corresponding summaries were published in "Analitical Summaries on Education" (2nd. semester 1989) issued by "CIDE-REDUC" in Santiago, Chile. Per-

sons interested in those publications, prepared by the Gulf of Mexico Sub-regional Unit (under the responsibility of the General Management of International Relations of the Public Educational Secretary's Office of Mexico), may refer the micro-fiches cards in any of the 24 REDUC centers existing in each one of the capitals of the countries in Latin America.

Area: *Analysis of the statistical and documental information*

Line: *Processing of information and preparation of reports*

A selection of 60 analytical summaries on bilingual inter-cultural education, has been published in the first volume of "Monothematic Analytical Summaries" (RAM No 1). The "SIRI" selected these summaries published by "REDUC-CIDE" during the past five years, presenting them in this first RAM with the purpose of: spreading among specialists the results of the research, together with recent reports; facilitate the location of the micro-fiches which are available in each capital of the region; identify the experts and institutions interested on the subject, in order to assist generating informal contacts between them, and to collaborate in a study of the International Education Office in Geneva. REDUC will publish a summary of this RAM No 1 and the micro-fiche will be available in its centers as from the second semester of 1990.

REDUC processed around 100 articles on literacy and adults' education identified by the "SIRI", in the volume corresponding to the second semester of 1989. This material, together with other 100 RAEs already available in the REDUC system will allow that "SIRI" and "REDALF" publish the Monothematic Analytical Summaries on Literacy and Adults' Education (RAM No 2). This volume will facilitate the work of analysis, to the specialists, and will allow them to read the original works in the corresponding micro-fiches.

168 documents were entered into the Documentation Center of OREALC in the January-March period of 1989. They are duly identified in the corresponding Bibliographic Bulletin, together with their subjects' indexes and authors. The analytical summaries of a selection of those documents will be published in the next volume of "REDUC", and those interested in them will be able to use the corresponding micro-fiches.

Area: *Exchange and use of the information and documentation*

Line: *Information systems for the administration*

Countries in Central America and Panama have made progress in the design and operation of the SIRI system at a sub-regional level. There are already in operation, computer systems installed at the national units, and nationals have been trained. In each country it has been prepared the Bulletin on Analytical Summaries on documents related to the Major Project in Education. A data base (SIBID) is available, together with a reference data base (SIBREF) and software has been prepared for the educational planning and administration. There is also a detailed report on the progress of the project, that was prepared by Juan Chong, in January 1990.

Colombia is making progress in the processing of information on academic performance. The "SIRI" was invited to make comments on these progresses and in October 1989, participated in an analysis of the strategies being prepared by the Ministry of Education of Colombia, with the purpose of developing the component 'evaluation' of the academic performance within its information system.

Schools –which due to their low academic performance must be given priority within the strategy designed by the new government in Chile–, have been identified. The SIRI collaborated with the Educational Information System (SIMCE) in the analysis of data to identify them, and to lay the foundations of the projects which the Ministry of Education is preparing to be presented for financing to the International Development Banks.

Area: *Exchange and use of the information and documentation*

Line: *Information Systems for the administration*

Bolivia expects to have it installed by the end of the year, a modern and centralized system for collecting and processing educational statistics. Programmes will include outputs with monthly summarized reports (one to three pages) to be selectively distributed, in order to generate administrative actions. The "SIRI" collaborated with the General Planning Board of Bolivia in the ellaboration of the project that will be financed by the UNICEF and which will allow to equip with computers and adequate programmes the nine regional offices.

Area: *Exchange and use of the information and documentation*

Line: *Information sub-networks*

Didactic materials are

available for the training of personnel in the use of "Microlsis", and there are also new functions and procedures in the Isis/PASCAL which permit to adequate the "Microlsis" program to the specific demands of users. During the meeting held in Venezuela, it was examined the progress experienced in the use of the "Microlsis" program in 14 countries of the region and in a dozen of international institutions. Those interested, may contact the "National distributor" in each country, who will also act as an exchange center among the users of the program. Anyway, the INFOLAC Technical Secretary's Office, in Caracas, will continue supporting the use of "Microlsis" in the region. It is expected in the future, to count with a library on generic procedures which may educate users regarding their potential uses.

Area: *Exchange and use of the information and documentation*

Line: *Programmes for the analysis and projections of information*

The SIRI is trying out a new "IDAMS" statistical package prepared by UNESCO for the analysis of data on education. IDAMS is a program which integrates the handling of original data, together with the statistical analysis of that data. It allows to validate or edit data, and to make analysis of 'variant', plus multiple and factorial regression. It can be used in connection with a compatible IBM-PC having a 512 K RAM, a hard disk of at least 12 "megabytes" and a DOS 2.10 operating system or higher. Together with the "Micro-Isis" it allows the "unified" processing of the textual and numerical information. UNESCO provides it free of charge in those cases when they are going to be part of the information system of the Ministry of Education, or of other equivalent cases.

Area: *Information systems for the administration*

Line: *Seminars/Congresses*

Patterns which examine the consistency of the educational information and that allow to evaluate the efficiency levels of the system, will be examined and operated by the attendants to the second regional course on Educational Planning, which will be held in Santiago, from October 1st through 31st, 1990. It will also be used the "SIRI" Data Bank in order to prepare a revised version of the Situation of Education within the Region.

OTHER OREALC ACTIVITIES

Meetings

Subject: REDALF's Regional Seminar-Workshop on literacy and postliteracy programmes with the support of communication media.

Date: 3-7 July

Place: Cusco, Peru

Participating countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Peru and Uruguay.

Analysis of innovating and outstanding experiences on literacy and postliteracy programmes with the aid of communication's media, favoring the use of the radio, the television (video) and printed materials.

Formulation of propositions on the pertinency and ways to use the social communication media in literacy and post-literacy programmes, considering the motivation of the "International Literacy Year" and that of the world program on "Education for All".

Collection of experiences and outstanding material for its dissemination in the represented countries.

Subject: REDALF Regional Course-workshop on adults' education.

Date: 6-31 August

Place: Pátzcuaro, Michoacán, Mexico

Participating countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic,Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela.

Entity in charge: CREFAL.

To examine the main practices and conceptions of the planning and research on adults' education.

To appraise the training experiences and to propose methodological strategies for the design and carrying out of permanent training systems.

To know the main methodologies for the reading-writing and mathematics learning.

To analyze instruments and evaluating experiences of literacy programmes.

OREALC PUBLICATIONS

- *Educación ambiental: módulo para la formación de profesores de ciencias y de supervisores para escuelas secundarias.* (Module 7 of Environmental Education Serie). Santiago, Chile, January 1990, 244 pp.
- *Modernización: un desafío para la educación.* Marianela Cerri, Luis Edo. González and Gordon West (comp.). Cooperative Programme CIDE-PIIE-OISE. Santiago, Chile, January 1990, 769 pp.
- *Recopilación de materiales didácticos en educación indígena.* Massimo Amadio and Anna Lucía D'Emilio (comp.). Santiago, Chile, January 1990, 176 pp.
- *El uso de la informática en la educación.* Final report, subregional seminar-workshop, Buenos Aires, Argentina, 5-9 December 1989. (Scientific and technological education). Santiago, Chile, January 1990, 164 pp.
- *Guía metodológica para la elaboración de materiales de lectura.* Javier Reyes. Santiago, Chile, February 1990, 122 pp.
- *El financiamiento de la educación en período de austeridad presupuestaria.* Ana María Corvalán M. (comp.). Santiago, Chile, February 1990, 150 pp.
- *Analfabetismo y alfabetización. Mesa redonda.* PROMEDLAC III (Third meeting of the Intergovernmental Committee of the Major Project in Education for Latin America and the Caribbean. Guatemala, 26-30 June 1989). Santiago, Chile, March 1990, 76 pp.
- *Información e Innovación en Educación.* Bulletin of the International Bureau of Education, No. 61, December 1989. Santiago, Chile, March 1990, 8 pp.
- *Alfabetización y educación cívica. Experiencias con mujeres campesinas en Perú.* Pilar Núñez (comp.). Santiago, Chile, March 1990, 85 pp.
- *La enseñanza secundaria en el siglo XXI. Un desafío para América Latina y el Caribe.* Luis Edo. González (comp.). Santiago, Chile, April 1990, 100 pp.
- *Educación ambiental: módulo para la formación inicial de profesores y supervisores de ciencias sociales para escuelas secundarias.* (Module 9 of Environmental Education Serie). Santiago, Chile, April 1990, 156 pp.

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OREALC PUBLICATIONS

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